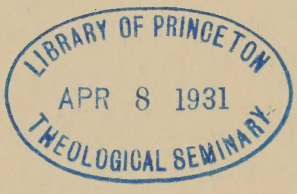
SOCIAL WORK YEAR BOOK 1929



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SOCIAL WORK YEAR BOOK

1929

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PART TWO

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PREFACE

SOCIAL work in the United States has its professional organizations, its professional schools, its national conferences, and its periodicals. But unlike many other professional or occupational groups it has hitherto had no comprehensive, periodical record of its varied activities. It is this unstaked field which the Social Work Year Book now enters. The publication has been undertaken by the Russell Sage Foundation in the belief that the progress of social work will be advanced thereby, its unity increased, and popular understanding of its aims enlarged. Present plans call for biennial issues along the general lines of this one.

The boundaries of social work are not fixed. No one of the numerous efforts to define its field has had general acceptance. The Year Book makes no such attempt. Its scope has been governed by practical considerations. Social work is closely related in practice to other professions—particularly to education and medicine—and many of the articles in this volume treat therefore of activities on the border line of these other fields.

The Year Book is not an encyclopaedia of social problems or social conditions; it is a record of organized efforts in the United States to deal with such problems. The problems themselves are discussed only to the extent that is necessary for an understanding of the forms of social work related to them. No problem or social condition is described unless some agency exists for its control, prevention, or study.

Except as to the year 1929 the Year Book does not attempt to give the results of original inquiries in its several fields. Articles were requested which would consist in the main of "judicious summaries of material already in print in more or less scattered form," supplemented by such information as contributors could supply from their own experience. In several fields either no comprehensive information has been published, or available information is much out of date. In such cases contributors were asked to record this fact, thus helping to reveal points at which investigation is needed.

An advisory committee was appointed in 1929 to assist the editors in the many decisions involved in a publication of this nature. Its members are shown on page 1. This committee has been of great assistance, but is not responsible for the policies adopted. That responsibility rests with the editors. Since all articles have been revised somewhat and the revisions returned to contributors for approval, responsibility for their form is shared by contributors and editors. The verification of dates, figures, and other

statements made by contributors—which some encyclopædias undertake—has not been possible for the present volume. References to literature, however, have been verified.

The topical articles which constitute Part I of the Year Book are arranged alphabetically in accordance with Cutter's *Rules for a Dictionary Catalog*. This part of the volume is, therefore, self-indexing. A classified list of articles is printed on page 19 and a list of contributors on page 11. Part II contains a list of 455 national agencies, public and private, and a topical index or classified list of these agencies. The Introduction to Part II, on page 493, states the basis on which these agencies were selected, the information supplied concerning them, and the purpose and limitations of the classification by topics.

The following uniform section headings have been used for articles wherever possible: *History and Present Status; Training Requirements and Opportunities; Developments and Events, 1929;* and *Legislation, 1929*. Because of space limitations contributors were asked to treat the histories of their fields as briefly as possible, placing emphasis instead upon the present status. Accordingly, general descriptions of the included fields constitute by far the largest part of most articles. Events of the year 1930 have ordinarily been excluded.

The most distinctive and also the most difficult feature of the Year Book is its attempt to record the events and developments of the year 1929. Material of two kinds was assembled by the staff for the assistance of contributors. This consisted of (1) laws passed during the year on topics included in the volume, and (2) schedule reports collected from the following sources: committees appointed in 42 cities by chapters of the American Association of Social Workers; community chests; federal and state boards of public welfare, health, education, and labor; and schools of social work. Over 400 laws were supplied by a legislative service company, and 2,321 reports were collected on schedules covering 63 different fields of social work. Though neither the legislative service nor the schedule reports furnished as complete a record as was desired of the changes of the year, they were of considerable service, especially in the less centrally organized fields. With the experience gained, a more representative body of facts should be obtainable for use in later editions of the Year Book.

The references to literature which appear at the end of each article have been supplied by contributors. Probably no single source of published material concerning social work is as valuable as the *Proceedings* of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, since 1917 the National Conference of Social Work. For most articles in the Year Book general reference might appropriately be made to these *Proceedings*. Instead, this

statement is made. In the references as printed publishers' names are not included for books indexed in the *United States Catalogue*, 1928, and its supplements, or for periodicals named in the *Union List of Serials*, 1927.

Many contributors have found it difficult to develop their subjects properly in the number of words assigned. For these limitations the editors are responsible. They will welcome suggestions for a better distribution of space or for additional topics to be covered in subsequent editions of the Year Book, as well as criticism concerning any other features of the volume. They will be especially glad to have their attention called to errors which readers may observe.

For assistance in compiling the Year Book the editors wish to express their appreciation to the members of the Advisory Committee, to the contributors, many of whom have prepared their articles in the midst of a crowded winter's work, and finally to the many members of the American Association of Social Workers who supplied the schedule reports already referred to.

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September, 1930.

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Asterisks (*) indicate "coordinating articles" prepared by the editors of the YEAR BOOK in order to show the relationship of specified articles to each other. Entries in parentheses follow articles which are listed in more than one group.

GROUP 1. FAMILIES OR ADULT INDIVIDUALS

Family welfare work*
Family welfare societies
Public agencies for needy families
Relief societies
Societies for friendly services

Parent education (Also in 2)
Parent-teacher movement (Also in 2)

Public welfare, state agencies
Public welfare, local agencies
County and city homes

Hospital social work (Also in 6)

Home economics*
Visiting housekeepers and home economists

Fraternal orders (Also in 2)

Mothers' aid (Also in 2)

Travelers' aid

Legal aid

Policewomen (Also in 2)
Girls' protective work (Also in 2)

Begging
Homeless persons
Transportation of clients

Disaster relief

Family budgets
Industrial insurance

Small loans

Birth control (Also in 6)

Marriage laws
Desertion and non-support
Domestic relations courts (Also in 2)

GROUP 2. CHILDREN

Child welfare*
Children's bureaus*
Child welfare activities of the federal government
Children's code commissions

Child development research
Parent education (Also in 1)
Parent-teacher movement (Also in 1)
Progressive education
Nursery schools
Kindergartens

Visiting teachers
Vocational guidance (Also in 7)
Vocational education (Also in 7)
Character education
Compulsory education
Child labor (Also in 7)

Child protection
Girls' protective work (Also in 1)
Policewomen (Also in 1)
Children born out of wedlock
Domestic relations courts (Also in 1)

Dependent and neglected children
Adoption
Mothers' aid (Also in 1)
Day nurseries

Juvenile courts and probation
Detention homes
Delinquent children, foster home care
Delinquent boys, institution care
Delinquent girls, institution care

Business men's service clubs
Fraternal orders (Also in 1)

Topical Articles, Classified

GROUP 3. THE HANDICAPPED

Placement of the handicapped
Rehabilitation
Sheltered workshops

The blind
Blindness, prevention of

The deaf
The hard of hearing
Crippled children
Speech disorders

GROUP 4. MISCELLANEOUS CLASSES

Immigrants and foreign communities
Colonization

Indians
Negroes

Rural social work
Southern mountaineers

The aged
Old age pensions
Middle age security

Veterans

Seamen

GROUP 5. MENTAL HYGIENE

Mental hygiene
Mental diseases
Mental deficiency
Psychiatric social work

Child guidance*
Psychiatric clinics for children

Clinical study of adult offenders (Also in 8)

GROUP 6. HEALTH

Public health
Public health, state agencies
Public health, local agencies
Public health associations
Health councils

Health centers
Health demonstrations
Health education, popular

Public health nursing
Nursing education
Hospital social work (Also in 1)
Occupational therapy

Hospital care
Clinics and out-patient departments
Convalescent care
Cost of medical care

Vital and health statistics

Medical research and social work*

Child hygiene
Maternal and infant hygiene
School hygiene
Mouth hygiene
Nutrition work for children
Health education in the public schools

Tuberculosis
Venereal diseases
Social hygiene
Cancer
Heart disease
Epilepsy
Chronic diseases
Drug addiction
Alcoholism
Diphtheria prevention

Birth control (Also in 1)

For mental health *see* MENTAL HYGIENE (Group 5).

Topical Articles, Classified

GROUP 7. INDUSTRY

Social research in industry

Labor legislation for women
Night work in industry
Hours of work in industry
Minimum wage
Home work in industry

Household employment

Child labor (Also in 2)

Organized labor
Organized labor, women

Personnel administration in industry

Industrial accidents
Occupational diseases
Safety education (Also in 12)

Labor, state agencies

Unemployment
Employment agencies

Vocational guidance (Also in 2)
Vocational education (Also in 2)

Workers' education

GROUP 8. CRIME AND PENAL CONDITIONS

Penal and reformatory institutions for adults
Prison labor

Clinical study of adult offenders (Also in 5)

Adult probation
Parole for adults
Prisoners' aid

Crime commissions

GROUP 9. RECREATION AND RELATED ACTIVITIES

Recreation

Parks, playgrounds, and recreation centers
Amateur outdoor athletics and sports
Bathing places
Hiking

Summer camps and day outings

Rural organization for recreation
Industrial recreation
Home recreation
Church recreation

Nature study
Children's gardens

Music
Arts and crafts
Story telling

Amateur dramatics
Pageants
Play festivals

Social settlements
Community centers (Also in 10)

Boys' clubs
Girls' clubs

Scouting and related organizations
Youth service associations

Commercial recreation
Public dance halls
Motion pictures
The theater

GROUP 10. COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

Community organization
Research in community organization
Community centers (Also in 9)

Civic and related organizations

Community chests and councils
Endorsement of social agencies
Social service exchanges

Topical Articles, Classified

GROUP 11. CHURCH SOCIAL WORK

Catholic social work
Protestant social work
Jewish social work
Mormon social work

GROUP 12. MISCELLANEOUS TOPICS

Social case work

Social work under state governments*

Social work as a profession
Education for social work
Libraries of social work
Conferences of social work

Women's organizations and social work*

Social research
Social surveys

Statistics of social work

Publicity in social work

Foundations in social work

City and regional planning
Housing

Residences for boys and men
Housing for girls and women

Education, state agencies

Adult education

Civil liberties

Safety education (Also in 7)

TOPICAL ARTICLES

ACCIDENT PREVENTION. *See* SAFETY EDUCATION and INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

ACCIDENTS, INDUSTRIAL. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

ADOPTION is a means of creating by law the relationship of parent and child. It is a matter of public concern because it implies the severance of relationships existing among blood kindred and the voluntary assumption of parental obligations through a legal process.

History and Present Status. Adoption was known to many of the ancient peoples. It is an old institution in Japan and India, but a new one in England, where it was unknown to the law until authorized in 1926. Legal provision for adoption is now practically universal in Europe, Canada, and the United States, but much less so in South and Central America.

In the United States provision for adoption now appears in the statutory law of every state. These acts show the influence of two distinct lines of thought: (1) the concept of adoption as a means of acquiring an heir to property—this concept having descended from the civil law tradition; (2) the idea of a new human relationship entered upon primarily for the good of the child, and for the purpose of giving him a home—an idea illustrated by the Massachusetts law of 1851.

The civil law tradition as embodied in the Code Napoleon has influenced legislation in those parts of the country which were originally subject to France (as Louisiana), or to Spain (as California and Texas). In sections where the common law of England was the model there was originally no legal provision for adoption, since there was none in the English law. Although adoption was unknown to the law in England, its common law of master and servant, with its provisions concerning apprenticeship, indenture, and binding out, became incorporated into the early statutory law of the states. Under the English indenture system the "poor and laborious part of the community when past the age of nurture" could be taken from their parents without their consent, or over their objection, and indentured or apprenticed during minority by the guardian of the poor. This method was undesirable because it tended to encourage parents to give up their children, and institutions to receive them without proper consideration of other possibilities for care. Abuses in connection with foundling asylums and lying-in homes became common. Also, compulsory indenture of children was an invasion of parental rights and was contrary to that principle of adoption which bases it on parental consent. Modern adoption legislation recognizes the essentiality of parental consent and shows a tendency to consider human values and acknowledge the supervisory duty of the state.

The Massachusetts statute of 1851, the first real adoption law in this country, provided for petition to the probate court, written consent of the parents, if living, or of guardian, next of kin, or next friend if the parents were deceased; joint petition of the adoptive parents, if married, and the granting of the decree by the judge when satisfied "that the adoption was fit and proper." The best present adoption legislative practice considers primarily the welfare of the child, but seeks also to safeguard the interests of both natural and adoptive parents. This emphasis upon human values is evident in the growing number of legal provisions for (1) a social investigation, pending hearing of

the case, which is designed to guide the judge in making his decision, and inquires not only into the antecedents of the child, his physical and mental condition, and his parents' reasons for permitting adoption, but also into the suitability of the prospective adoptive parents and their motive for desiring adoption; (2) proper consent of the parents, and of the child if over a specified age; (3) residence of the child in the prospective adoptive home for a specified period; (4) restrictions upon parental transfer of custody; (5) licensing by the state of child-placing agencies and maternity homes, together with control and supervision of adoption from such agencies; (6) appeal from the decree; (7) annulment for good cause; and (8) changes in the reciprocal rights and duties resulting from adoption. Other important features in adoption legislation are the proper safeguarding of records and the vesting of jurisdiction in specified courts.

The number of adoptions decreed annually is not known. Approximately 250,000 children, legitimate and illegitimate, were under the guardianship of public and private child-caring agencies in 1926, and each year probably more than 50,000 illegitimate children are born. Large numbers of these children are not available for adoption, but the possibility of this as a method of care is a factor to be considered. Moreover, many children not in agency care are adopted each year.

In recent years adoption legislation has received a great deal of attention and the laws have been extensively revised. The subject has been considered by all state child welfare commissions and many revisions have been made in accordance with their recommendations. *See* CHILDREN'S CODE COMMISSIONS. In 1925 the federal Children's Bureau published a study of adoption laws of the United States which showed how widely the laws varied and emphasized the significant features of the more recent statutes. During the next four years 27 states enacted new adoption legislation or amended existing laws. Legislative provisions for state licensing, or supervision of maternity hospitals and child-caring institutions and agencies, have also definitely affected their handling of adoption.

Only within recent years have studies been made of adoption procedure and practice and of the results of this method of child care. In 1925 the procedure and practice of adoption in Pennsylvania was studied. Somewhat similar studies followed in Massachusetts and Illinois. At least two studies have attempted to evaluate adoption as a form of social treatment. See references at end of this article.

The private agencies most directly interested in adoption are children's aid and home-finding societies, institutions which do placing out, and maternity homes and agencies working with unmarried mothers. Among the public agencies are courts which have jurisdiction over adoption, and public welfare agencies, municipal, county or state, which are increasingly being given responsibility for safeguarding both the process and the results of adoption. The federal Children's Bureau, through its investigations and reports, and the Child Welfare League of America, through its surveys of child-caring agencies and institutions in different sections of the country and through regional conferences, have stimulated interest in adoption and in efforts to study and improve procedure. Further study along this line is needed. With a problem so extensive, and with such variation in legislation and in the administration of laws, much remains to be done before adoption as a social asset can be constructively conserved.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year at least five states—Massachusetts, Nebraska, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Wisconsin—enacted laws amending and improving previous legislation in minor ways. Studies in progress during the year include a study of adoption in Ohio under the auspices of the State Department of Charities; a study of adoption in Hamilton County, Ohio (Cincinnati), and of the social policies of the juvenile court and child-caring agencies

under the auspices of the Child Welfare League of America; and a study of the adoption laws of the United States from 1925 to 1929, inclusive, under the auspices of the federal Children's Bureau.

CONSULT: Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Adoption Laws of the United States* (Bulletin No. 148), 1925; Abbott, Grace: "Adoption, Modern," in *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, vol. 1, 1930; Gesell, Arnold: *Psychoclinical Guidance in Child Adoption* (Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor), 1926, and "Reducing the Risks of Child Adoption," in *Bulletin of Child Welfare League of America*, May, 1927; Nims, Elinor: *The Illinois Adoption Law and Its Administration*, 1928; Theis, Sophie V. S.: *How Foster Children Turn Out* (State Charities Aid Association, New York), 1924; Parker, Ida R.: *Fit and Proper?* (The Boston Church Home Society), 1927; Deardorff, Neva R.: *Report of the Commission Appointed to Study and Revise the Statutes of Pennsylvania Relating to Children*, 1925.

IDA R. PARKER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 579.

ADULT EDUCATION is a comparatively recent term which covers various new ventures in educational theory and practice, and also many older types of education, viewed in a new light and informed by a new spirit and purpose. Its basic idea is that continuous mental growth and activity are necessary for personal and social well-being.

History and Present Status. Although the movement for adult education in the United States was not so designated until 1924, its roots extend back as far as the New England town meeting of the seventeenth century. The town lyceum of the nineteenth century carried on this educational tradition. Later developments — chautauquas, correspondence courses, university extension lectures, forums, institutes, night school classes, Americanization work, workers' education, and the rapidly expanding educational services of free public libraries—were all outward and visible signs of an inner conviction that in spite of the opinion of psychologists and pedagogues, men and women might profitably resume the learning process at any age.

The impulse to correlate these scattered educational activities was inspired in part by the formation in England of the Workers' Educational Association in 1903. This was the expression in organizational form of a tradition of education for adult workers that was then almost a century old. Englishmen also took the initiative in establishing the World Association for Adult Education in 1918, with headquarters in London. Increasing recognition of the British movement and observance of the interest in adult education manifested in many parts of this country led the Carnegie Corporation of New York in 1924 to make an inquiry into American conditions. A series of five *Studies in Adult Education* resulted and the organization of the American Association for Adult Education followed in 1926. The Association has functioned as a clearing house for the findings of the varied enterprises in adult education. It has also initiated and sponsored research studies, and has conducted experiments in cooperation with other agencies. The membership of the Association numbers approximately 1,000, but this is an inadequate index of its educational influence, since many of its individual members are leaders, organizers, and teachers, who often represent large numbers of students.

The extent of the adult education movement may best be visualized from an enumeration of the agencies that contribute to it. The list includes: libraries; museums; universities and colleges, through their extension departments, and other extra-mural activities; agricultural colleges, working in cooperation with the federal Department of Agriculture; public schools, through their various extensions; cooperative schools; parent education associations; correspondence schools; chautauquas; lyceums; open forums; people's institutes; people's colleges; labor schools and workers' education classes;

corporation schools; special summer schools; national associations, fraternal, religious, and the like; clubs of many kinds; and other enterprises so individualistic as to defy classification. Nor is this list exhaustive. For instance, the growing importance of radio broadcasting, and of motion pictures, with or without sound, is definitely affecting the initial concepts of educational method. Since adult education is addressed to men and women mainly occupied in earning a livelihood, its program must be adjusted to times of leisure. Hence it concentrates in evening classes, and in summer schools which may be in session for a few days or for months.

Adult education activities have important aspects in common that differentiate them from the compulsory education which children and adolescents undergo. Adult education students are, as a rule, mature men and women whose interests are more or less individualized—voluntary students who continue in classes only as long as they gain something that seems vital and related to their life experience. In planning curricula the needs and desires of such students must therefore be consulted to a far greater degree than those of younger students. Significant tendencies have sprung from this circumstance. Teachers are called upon to meet a demand that cuts across the traditional divisions of knowledge, and takes material which will contribute to an understanding of human situations wherever it can be found. In order that the students' fund of experience may be drawn upon for the benefit of the group, the discussion method, which gives students an opportunity for active participation, is widely used. What may be called a technique of discussion is being developed by educators in this field.

A new fellowship is manifesting itself among individuals and agencies concerned in adult education, resulting in community programs like that under which Chester County, Pa., has promoted a county library movement, formed a county drama league, and started a lecture bureau service. Among the large cities that in various ways have organized their adult education work on a community basis are Cleveland, Buffalo, Detroit, Chicago, Dallas, Brooklyn, New York City, and Nashville. Community organization of adult education facilities is proceeding also in Boston, Washington, D. C., Pittsburgh, Minneapolis, Duluth, St. Louis, and Los Angeles. In rural districts government agencies, like the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, and voluntary local associations are leading in the adult education movement. The little theatre movement provides adults with opportunities for creative, self-expressive work along lines ordinarily blocked in their every-day activity. *Footlights Across America* (1929), a study of this movement by Kenneth Macgowan, revealed the fact that there are more than 1,000 little theatres in this country which play to audiences totaling more than half a million persons.

Developments and Events, 1929. A number of experiments carried on during the year indicate the direction in which adult education is expanding. The possibilities of radio broadcasting as a mechanism in the field were made the subject of an investigation under the auspices of the American Association for Adult Education, and an evaluation of university correspondence courses was begun. The first named study paralleled another on the same subject begun by an Advisory Committee on Education by Radio, appointed by Secretary Wilbur of the federal Department of the Interior. During the year also a study of alumni education was completed by the American Alumni Council; this had been inaugurated in an earlier year in the belief that colleges and universities should foster continuing intellectual relationships with their students after graduation. Finally, many state departments of education—those of Delaware, Rhode Island, and Wyoming particularly—broadened and strengthened their programs of adult education, the department in Idaho beginning a survey of the entire field. In August the first World Conference on Adult Education

met in Cambridge, England, with more than 60 Americans in attendance.

CONSULT: Fisher, Dorothy Canfield: *Why Stop Learning?* 1927; World Association for Adult Education: *International Handbook of Adult Education*, 1929; Lindeman, E. C.: *The Meaning of Adult Education*, 1926, and "Adult Education," in *Encyclopaedia of the Social Sciences*, vol. 1, 1930; Peffer, Nathaniel: *New Schools for Older Students*, 1926; Thorndike, E. L., and others: *Adult Learning*, 1928; and "Bibliography of Adult Education" (annotated), in *Journal of Adult Education*, January, 1930 (Reprints may be obtained from the American Association for Adult Education).

MARY L. ELY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 579.

ADULT PROBATION has been defined as a system used in suitable instances to discipline and to improve the conduct of convicted adult offenders without commitment to an institution, by release on good behavior under the authoritative, helpful oversight of an official of the court known as a probation officer. Probation is thus an attempt to change the attitude and habits of delinquents and to enlarge their group relationships in order that they may develop into normal, self-supporting citizens.

The success or failure of probation depends necessarily upon the kind of human material with which the probation officer has to work, as well as upon his own fitness for the task. Experience has shown, for instance, that drug addicts, confirmed inebriates, the feeble-minded with fixed antisocial habits, and some types of habitual offenders rarely do well on probation. In order that a judge may decide wisely whether probation should be granted or not, it is essential that he should have the benefit of a comprehensive social study of the individual. There should be a complete survey, analysis, and interpretation of the legal and social history of the offender, his personal history, education and early life, family and neighborhood conditions, industrial history, mental and physical status, character and conduct, and the etiology of the maladjustment. The social diagnosis made possible through such means is of value also to the probation officer, for he must determine a plan of treatment in accordance with the problem that the delinquent presents, in the event that probation is ordered. Possessed of such information, the probation officer can proceed to formulate an effective plan for personality adjustment and social rehabilitation.

It is believed by many persons that probation can be administered more effectively where there is a division of staff into separate groups of officers for investigation and supervision. Such persons hold that this plan of organization brings about a desirable specialization and concentration in the work of diagnosis of the delinquent and in the treatment of the probationer, and that the system where a probation officer is called upon both to investigate and supervise cases has not succeeded. Other persons in the field maintain, however, that diagnosis and treatment are parts of a single, continuing process which should not be divided. They hold also that service by districts—made possible under such a plan, if the department is large enough—is more economical of time for the probation department.

It is generally agreed that probation, whether for children or adults, must be carried on in accordance with certain minimum standards if it is to be successful in changing delinquent attitudes or habits of life. First of all it is essential that adequate personnel be provided. Some authorities in this field believe that no probation officer assigned to investigation should be responsible for more than 12 cases a month, and that no probation officer doing supervision should have more than 40 cases assigned to him at any time. Understanding and active cooperation between judges and probation officers are also essential to good probation work.

Suspension of sentence, with probation supervision for a period of years, is not to be

regarded as an expression of leniency. Properly administered, with the probationer held to a high standard of conduct and regular reports, it is a form of discipline which frequently lasts longer than would the sentence to an institution. The probationer is required to work steadily, to support his family, and to live an orderly life under the careful guidance of a probation officer. Probation protects society from the menace of the criminal as thoroughly as does institutional confinement, and the expense to the community is considerably less.

History and Present Status. The first probation law in the United States was passed in Massachusetts in 1878; it applied to the city of Boston only, and was an outgrowth of the work of John Augustus, a cobbler. For some time he had been taking under supervision youthful offenders who, in the opinion of the judges before whom they appeared, would be benefited more by this treatment than by a term in prison. Apparently Augustus had achieved a considerable degree of success with his wards. Until 1899, when Rhode Island passed a law establishing juvenile and adult probation, no other state had authorized this type of treatment, but by the end of 1917 laws for some form of probation (including both adult and juvenile probation) existed in every state and the District of Columbia. Such laws now include adult probation in 33 states and in the District of Columbia, but state-wide systems have been developed in only nine states—Massachusetts, New York, Connecticut, Rhode Island, Vermont, Michigan, Illinois, New Jersey, and Pennsylvania. In 19 states, however, provision is made for some form of state supervision. Under such systems, uniform methods of probation are established and increased efficiency results. In addition, a state bureau may act as a center for the dissemination of information and cooperate in many ways with local probation departments.

A federal probation law was adopted in 1925 which gave each judge of the United States district courts the power to appoint one salaried probation officer. The number of voluntary or unpaid officers was not limited. The federal appropriation for probation for 1930 was only $25,000. A bill is now before Congress which would enable the judge of any United States district court to appoint as many salaried probation officers as he deems necessary to carry on the work, subject to the approval of the Department of Justice, which has the power to fix salaries. The bill provides that the attorney general, or his authorized agent, shall exercise general supervision over the administration of the probation service in the United States courts.

There are about 2,000 probation officers supervising adult probationers in the United States. Salaries range from $1,000 to $3,000 a year. Higher salaries are paid to deputy chief and chief probation officers, the latter of whom in some instances receive salaries of $8,500 to $9,000 a year.

In 1925 a Probation Bureau was established under the auspices of the Catholic Charities of the Archdiocese of New York at the Court of General Sessions in New York City. It was intended to be a laboratory in which to demonstrate the potentialities of probation work when carried on scientifically with adequate financial support and competent administration. Good standards of investigation and supervision procedure were followed under the direction of a capable executive. Social diagnosis and case work treatment, undertaken by a corps of well-qualified probation officers, formed the backbone of the experiment. Sufficient remuneration was offered to attract college graduates of good personality. Psychiatric clinic service and adequate clerical assistance were provided. Only 19 per cent of the defendants were placed on probation, in comparison with from 35 to 40 per cent previously. Thus, as a result of comprehensive social investigations, the number placed on probation was decreased, but there resulted a better selection of cases for probationary treatment. At the end of the demonstration period, on January 1, 1927, the work of the Probation

Bureau and much of its staff was taken over by the Court of General Sessions. This demonstration was the first experiment of its kind in America. It has provided a stimulus for the founding of similar probation systems in other places, and the improvement of existing systems.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Probation officers are usually required to meet certain educational requirements; preferably they should be college graduates and should have had training in social case work and in scientific methods of treating offenders. If volunteer service is used, the workers should be carefully selected and trained and should be under the supervision of the chief probation officer. All probation officers should be appointed from civil service eligible lists, established after competitive examinations to test their knowledge of the essentials of the work. This procedure, or some other form of selection through competitive examination, is followed in nine states—Alabama, California, Georgia, Montana, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. In some states the practice of appointment through competitive examinations is state-wide. The state of New York specifies, for example, that no one shall be eligible for the position of probation officer who is "under 21, or over 60 years of age, or who has not the equivalent of a high school education, or who is not physically, mentally, or morally fitted. Such probation officers shall be selected because of definite qualifications as to character, period of training, and primarily with respect to their capacity for rightly influencing human behavior." In other states, civil service requirements are observed only in the larger counties of the state. Adult probation officers in Hennepin County, Minn., are appointed by the judges of the district court who have the power to determine qualifications and hold competitive examinations for the position. Following appointment, all probation officers should undergo a period of training within probation departments.

Legislation, 1929. During the year California (Ch. 512) established a Division of Probation in the State Department of Social Welfare to survey, supervise, and standardize all probation work, both juvenile and adult, within the state. For this purpose $20,000 was appropriated for two years. An investigation and report by a probation officer was also required before an offender could be placed on probation. New Jersey (Ch. 156) combined its probation laws in one act and defined more satisfactorily the terms and conditions which the court may impose upon the probationer. Minnesota (Ch. 326) authorized the Adult Probation Department of Hennepin County (Minneapolis) to collect alimony and support for wives or children; to make investigations and reports in criminal cases as well as in divorce cases; to exercise supervision over children in such cases; to compel persons ordered to pay support or alimony to make payments by instituting contempt proceedings, when necessary, and to perform other duties for the protection of children and indigent mothers as may be directed by the court. West Virginia (Ch. 29) authorized the appointment of an adult probation officer in Kanawha County (Charleston). He is the first publicly paid probation officer to be appointed in that state.

CONSULT: Johnson, Fred R.: *Probation for Juveniles and Adults*, 1928; Cooley, Edwin J.: *Probation and Delinquency*, 1927; Sutherland, Edwin H.: *Criminology*, 1924; Gillin, J. L.: *Criminology and Penology*, 1926; Robinson, Louis N.: *Penology in the United States*, 1921; also the Proceedings and Reports of the national agencies listed in NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED.

EDWIN J. COOLEY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 579.

THE AGED. The care of the aged poor, long a subject of thought and planning by social workers, has recently become of special interest to the community because of the increase in the number of dependent aged.

According to the census of 1920 the number of persons 65 years old or over was 4,933,215, or 4.67 per cent of the population. Estimates vary widely as to the incidence of dependency in this group, but most authoritative surveys indicate that nearly one-third are dependent, having no property or income of their own, or insufficient income on which to live. A report in 1925 by the Massachusetts Commission on Pensions, one of the best statistical studies of this subject, showed that 15.6 per cent of the persons studied—all of whom were over 65 years of age—were dependent on public sources. About one-half of the latter were dependent on military or other pensions, and half on charitable agencies or on institutional care.

Many proposals have been made in recent years for the care of these people. The Bishops' Program of the National Catholic Welfare Conference demands a complete system of social insurance on a contributory basis. The American Federation of Labor passed a resolution in 1922 definitely advocating state pensions, and many employers favor them. Ten states already have such laws. *See* Old Age Pensions.

Present Status. The dependent aged are cared for in five ways: by their friends or relatives, in almshouses, in their own homes or the homes of relatives by means of private or public relief, in private institutions, or in nursing homes. These forms of care will be considered in turn.

Although the figures just quoted indicate that about half of the dependent aged look to their own families for support, it is often difficult for grown children who themselves have low earnings to be responsible for their aged parents. "Modern city housing, of the sort which small income people can afford, usually means crowding. Small flats and cheap apartments provide no space for an inactive person such as an aged man or woman is apt to be. . . . Most of the aged persons reported that their sons or daughters had young families and small earnings and could not afford to do more than pay the rent for them." (*Old Age Dependency*, issued by the State Department of Social Welfare of California in 1928, pp. 35–36.)

According to the United States census (*Paupers in Almshouses: 1923*) there were 41,980 persons 65 years of age or over in almshouses. From 1910 to 1923 there was an increase in the number of inmates in each age period for 65 years on, while the number under 65 years decreased. These figures indicate an increasing use of the almshouse for the care of the aged. The American almshouse has been much criticized in the past, and justly so. Improvement has come, however, where city and county authorities have together built large units which make possible the segregation of like groups and usually include infirmaries where the chronically sick are given adequate medical and nursing care, occupational therapy, and recreation. Such homes are now found in most large cities. Virginia, West Virginia, North Carolina, Illinois, Michigan, and Alabama are beginning to recognize the economy and efficiency of the large unit and are reducing the number of small almshouses by consolidation. The cottage plan for able-bodied inmates is now being used in some states. Small congenial groups are placed in homelike surroundings. *See* County and City Homes.

Family welfare societies have undoubtedly developed the most efficient and most adequate methods of furnishing relief, including that given to the aged in their homes; the relief is more closely supervised and better adjusted to individual needs, but the increasing number of aged dependents, and their continued need, renders it impossible for private societies to cope with the situation without city or state aid. In Massachusetts it has been found that relief to the aged at home costs less than institutional care. Its advantages are obvious, particularly for women who find the freedom from supervision and the possibility of approximating home conditions in a housekeeping room in an environment to which they have been accustomed far preferable to life in even the

best-managed institutions. But such relief is frequently inadequate and is sometimes given to persons who are physically or mentally unable to make judicious use of it.

The most conspicuous means by which the aged receive care are private institutions operating under a variety of auspices. Comprehensive and recent information concerning these institutions appears in a report of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, issued in October, 1929 (Bulletin No. 489). This report lists 1,268 such institutions and gives information for 1,036 of them. In the latter 68,661 persons received care. Included are 444 homes under religious auspices, 360 under private philanthropic auspices, 102 under fraternal orders, 32 for nationality groups, 5 for trade union members, 55 federal and state homes, mainly for ex-soldiers and sailors, and 38 other homes.

Figures as to the charges made by private homes need be quoted only for those under religious or philanthropic auspices, since these two groups together constitute more than three-quarters of the total. Two-thirds of such homes charge admission fees, and over one-quarter of those without admission fees have charges for board. The largest group with admission fees are homes that require between $500 and $600; and for the largest group requiring payment for board, monthly rates of from $20 to $40 per month are established. Admission to private homes is usually restricted also by requirements as to age and membership in a church of a specified denomination or in a fraternal order. Where requirements are few the waiting lists are long.

Many of the aged are chronically ill. To supplement the inadequate facilities for this class, private hospital nursing homes have been established. Like the small-unit almshouse, they usually lack the resident doctor and trained nurse. Practical nurses of a rather high type are employed, and a doctor is called upon for occasional services. *See* Chronic Diseases. In some states such homes are now being licensed and inspected. There are no free nursing homes, and prices vary from $12 to $35 a week, depending upon whether the patient is in a ward or a private room, and upon the type of attendant.

Developments and Events, 1929. That this form of work has not lost its old appeal to the generous is suggested by the fact that during the year 21 new homes were opened and additions to many older homes were built. Some private institutions reported the establishment of a system of careful investigation of all applicants by professional case-workers, more careful keeping of records, and the introduction of vocational training, thus adding to the self-respect and contentment of inmates. Local studies in this field were made or begun during the year in several cities: in Milwaukee the Central Council of Social Agencies studied old age relief; in Chicago the Council of Social Agencies studied the intake problem of homes for the aged; in Washington a general survey was made covering the care of the aged; and in New York City, under the auspices of the Welfare Council, a study was made of the chronically ill in private institutions and of age discrimination in industry. In New York State a commission was established by the legislature to study the most practical and efficient method of providing security against old age dependency; and the Joint Legislative Welfare Committee, which had been studying almshouse conditions for two years, was continued. The Chicago Associated Jewish Charities announced plans for a study of old age dependency.

Consult: Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor: *Care of Aged Persons in the United States* (Bulletin No. 489), October, 1929; Ohio Department of Public Welfare: *Care of Aged and Infirm in Ohio* (Vol. 6, No. 1), 1929; State Department of Social Welfare of California: *Old Age Dependency*, 1928; National Civic Federation: *Study of the Extent of Old Age Dependency*, 1928; "The Non-Institutional Aged Poor," in *American Labor Legislation Review*, June, 1929; *Bulletin of American Association for Old Age Security*, October, 1929; Russell Sage Foundation Library: *Provisions for Care of the*

Aged (a selected bibliography), Bulletin No. 75, 1926; Epstein, Abraham: *The Challenge of the Aged*, 1928; and papers read before the Chicago Conference on the Care of the Aged, March, 1930, in *Social Service Review*, June, 1930. For references relating to old age pensions and almshouses *see* OLD AGE PENSIONS and COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

(MRS.) ROSE HEAD RICHARDS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 579.

AGRICULTURAL COLONIES. *See* COLONIZATION.

ALCOHOLISM is a disease caused by excessive drinking of alcoholic liquors. After moderate or intemperate drinking, continued through months or years, chronic alcoholism may develop. Alcoholism in its chronic form may be manifested by dipsomania, delirium tremens, acute or chronic hallucinoses, paranoid states, Korsakoff's syndrome, or by a general state of physical and mental deterioration in which the stomach, liver, blood vessels, and other organs are affected.

For ordinary drunkenness, without complications, rest in a warm bed until the poison is eliminated is usually found sufficient; for more serious conditions active measures are necessary to expedite elimination by emetics, cathartics, or diuretics. Chronic alcoholism, either with or without mental disease, requires prolonged treatment. The use of alcohol is immediately or gradually discontinued, medicines are given as indicated, and an effort is made to establish a routine of hygienic living. In cases of alcoholic mental disease or of confirmed inebriety, treatment in an institution is usually required. Recovery within a year ordinarily follows such treatment, though relapse necessitating readmission frequently occurs if the use of alcoholic liquor is resumed.

History and Present Status. Special institutions for the treatment of inebriates exist at present in England and on the continent of Europe. In the United States during the second half of the nineteenth century and the first 15 years of the present century the establishment of homes or asylums for inebriates was advocated by many social organizations. The first institution resulting from such agitation was the New York State Inebriate Asylum at Binghamton, N. Y., started in September, 1858. The institution fulfilled its purpose for several years, but in 1879 it was converted into an asylum for the insane. An institution for inebriates in New York State was in operation at Fort Hamilton, in Kings County, between 1869 and 1898, and another at Warwick, in Orange County, between 1913 and 1920. The former was discontinued for lack of funds, and the latter for lack of patients. Massachusetts opened the Foxborough Hospital for Dipsomaniacs and Inebriates in 1891. The institution after caring for alcoholics for 23 years transferred its patients to the Norfolk State Hospital and became a state hospital for the insane. The treatment of inebriates in the Norfolk institution was discontinued in 1918. In 1904 the State of Iowa established an institution for inebriates at Knoxville. It at first received from 300 to 400 patients a year, but was later converted to other uses. Minnesota organized a state farm for inebriates at Willmar in 1912 but in 1917 converted it into a state hospital for the insane. So far as known to the author, there is not at the present time in the United States a single public institution solely for the treatment of inebriates; nor is there any national agency covering this problem specifically in its field of work.

The laws of several states provide for the commitment of inebriates to either public or private institutions for mental disease, but the number so committed in recent years has been very small. Patients with alcoholic mental disease are admitted to state or private licensed institutions for the insane on the same terms as other patients. In 1910 alcoholic cases constituted one-tenth of all admissions to such hospitals in the

United States; in 1922 the proportion had dropped to 3.7 per cent.

CONSULT: White and Jelliffe: *The Modern Treatment of Nervous and Mental Diseases* (Chap. 7, by H. W. Mitchell), 1913; Hurd, Henry M. and others: *The Institutional Care of the Insane in the United States and Canada* (Vols. 1 and 2), 1916–1917; and reports of the Commission on Inebriety of New York City, 1913–1917.

HORATIO M. POLLOCK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

ALMSHOUSES. *See* COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

AMATEUR DRAMATICS in cities, towns, villages, and rural districts has had a remarkable growth in recent years. Estimates supplied by different authorities indicate that there are no less than 30,000 amateur player groups in the country at the present time. A third of these groups are connected with schools and colleges, another third are under the auspices of churches, and the remainder under the guidance of settlement houses, community centers, city recreation departments, and institutions. In churches the ancient prejudice against the theatre and dramatic representations has almost disappeared. The value of religious drama as part of a church service, as well as the value of secular drama for the recreation and training of church members, has been recognized. To assist individual churches in their dramatic work, the national headquarters of many religious denominations have special service bureaus which suggest plays to be used and in several instances rent costumes at a minimum charge. The recently organized Church and Drama League of America will probably stimulate further activity in church groups by supplying information, advice, and lists of plays to its members. *See* CHURCH RECREATION.

In settlement houses, community centers, and departments of recreation many new dramatic clubs for adults and for children have been organized for the serious study and production of plays and pageants. Classes in drama and public speaking have been undertaken recently to train amateur players and directors, as well as to develop self-confidence and poise in their pupils. A dramatic novelty promoted by directors of recreation, and popular not only in towns and cities but in villages and rural sections as well, is the one-act play tournament in which organized groups compete. In recreational groups the slogan might well be "mass participation," since it is the aim of all directors to enable as many people as possible to participate in plays and pageants regardless of their previous training or experience. *See* PAGEANTS AND PLAY FESTIVALS. For the little theatre movement and the community playhouse development *see* THE THEATRE.

Dramatic presentations in institutions made appreciable gains during 1929. In a large industrial school for boys several active players' clubs were formed. The boy who conducts himself properly has a part allotted to him; a single infraction of the rules suspends him from the group; thus recreational and disciplinary value is combined. In an institution for the mentally unbalanced carefully selected plays were used experimentally with remarkable educational and recreational results.

CONSULT: Macgowan, Kenneth: *Footlights Across America Towards a National Theatre*, 1929 (gives the results of a survey of the non-commercial theatre of America, made for the American Association of Adult Education and Carnegie Corporation of New York); and National Recreation Association: *Community Drama*, 1926.

CHARLES F. WELLS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 579.

AMATEUR OUTDOOR ATHLETICS AND SPORTS. The underlying principles of present-day athletics are equal opportunity for every boy and girl, and training

for the group rather than for the individual player. The goal of "athletics for all," while not yet reached, is not beyond the hope of realization, and the responsibility of social and educational agencies to attain this ideal is definitely acknowledged.

Present Status. Athletics and sports may be defined as the "big-muscled fighting plays of youth." They are the highly organized, intensely competitive games and contests participated in by the adolescent and early adult groups. Basketball, baseball, swimming, tennis, boxing and wrestling, track and field contests, are typical forms of activity. According to the generally accepted definition, an amateur athlete in the United States is "one who engages in sports solely for the pleasure and the physical, mental, and social benefits he derives therefrom, and to whom sports are nothing more than an avocation." The purpose of this article is to indicate the extent to which provision has been made for participation in sports by amateurs.

Athletics have become an integral part of the educational system of the country, and the schools, through their physical education departments and intramural and inter-school competitions, provide not only the initial training for future activity, but also reach a larger group of participants than any other agency. The dangers in this field are over-emphasis on the "varsity," the win-at-all-cost motive, the false value which the star athlete gains through excessive publicity, and the harmful results of placing gate receipts as a major objective. The recognition of these serious difficulties is an encouraging advance of the past year. This progress has been due in large part to the efforts of the American Physical Education Association, the National Collegiate Athletic Association, the National Federation of State High Schools Athletic Associations, and the Society of Directors of Physical Education in Colleges.

Play areas under leadership were reported by 872 cities for 1929. Part of the program included the supervision of 6,549 athletic leagues, each league consisting of 4 to 12 teams. The impetus to additional participation in sports through interest in league play is one of the greatest factors in amateur athletics. The National Recreation Association is pledged to the slogan of "athletics for all" as opposed to the star athlete or varsity team program. The maintenance of thousands of public playgrounds, golf courses, swimming pools, and other facilities supported by public funds is a most necessary requisite for such a program.

An important factor in this field is the participation of local and national institutions such as the Young Women's Christian Associations, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Knights of Columbus, boys' clubs, settlement houses, and American Turnerbunds. In some of these agencies the athletic department is the corner-stone on which their other departmental activities are built. Through them thousands of men and women, boys and girls take an interest in athletics and sports. Settlements and boys' clubs in particular succeed in reaching large numbers of players who would not have an opportunity for participation in such activities through any other channel.

The Amateur Athletic Union, with its accepted authority to sanction and control developments in many branches of athletics and sports, has been and is a most powerful organization in this field. The championship meets conducted by local, city-wide, and nation-wide units reach thousands of members and provide particularly for competition by the most expert and skillful players. The National Amateur Athletic Federation, with 18 member organizations which direct most of the nation's amateur athletics, holds an important position. It emphasizes higher standards of participation—more players in the game and fewer people in the bleachers—and has contributed a clear-cut definition of amateurism. An outstanding development of late years has been the stressing of desirable ideals and policies in athletics for girls and women, and leadership in this has been

supplied by the Women's Division of the Federation.

CONSULT: Ryan, W. Carson, Jr.: *The Literature of American School and College Athletics* (a bibliography), Bulletin No. 24 of Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching, 1929; Welfare Council of New York City: *Boys' Athletics in Thirty-three Settlements in the City of New York*, 1929; issues of *The Playground and Recreation* (National Recreation Association), *Athletic Journal; American Physical Education Review* (American Physical Education Association), *Mind and Body;* and *Proceedings* of the national and regional conferences of organizations listed on page 580 in NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, under the title of this article.

ARTHUR T. NOREN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

AMERICANIZATION. *See* IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES.

APPRENTICESHIP TRAINING. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

ARTS AND CRAFTS. The importance of the creative arts in a well-rounded recreation program has never been fully realized, particularly by those responsible for municipal recreation systems. Handicraft has been included as a playground activity, but efforts to stimulate painting, sculpture, or any form of the fine arts have been rare. This article deals with these and other activities, such as modeling and wood carving, which require the use of the hands. Music, dancing, drama, poetry, and other arts are not touched upon.

The vocational and therapeutic value of the crafts for those who are physically or mentally handicapped has long been recognized, but only recently have these activities been considered seriously as a stimulating and intelligent use of leisure time for normal people. For many years settlements have provided opportunities for craft work, and the eagerness with which they have been seized proves the almost universal urge for creative expression. Such work has great recreational value, primarily because of the other activities with which it is frequently allied. In camp programs it is related to nature, woodcraft, and pageantry. It carries back into the home and cements home life with many common interests. Through scene painting, costume designing, and dyeing it touches the field of drama.

Crafts conducted on municipal playgrounds are limited to those which can be successfully carried on without machinery or intricate equipment. Such operations are basketry, wood and linoleum block printing, stenciling, coping saw work, work in hammered brass and copper, leather tooling, soap carving, clay modeling, flower printing, sewing, paper craft, bead work, simple weaving on handmade looms, Indian crafts, and toy making in wood, paper, and cloth. In addition to a playground program of this type the Los Angeles Recreation Department has a large house where children and adults may go for instruction in the arts. The Chicago Recreation Department conducts outdoor sketching classes. The program of arts and crafts in settlements offers more variations, for in these centers workshops and equipment are often provided. Greenwich House in New York City and Hull House in Chicago are probably the outstanding examples in this field. During 1929 Greenwich House opened a fully equipped craft house. Settlement classes include pottery, painting, modeling, wood carving, designing, jewelry making, book binding, wood block printing, weaving, chair caning, metal and enamel work, and printing and engraving.

The past five years have seen increased interest in the arts. During 1929 the College Settlement in New York City opened a workshop for college and employed girls. The National Recreation Association planned a special study of the field. Vassar College recently held an institute of arts and crafts. The tendency in craft programs is toward greater flexibility, with emphasis on the encouragement of original expression. Formerly a class of 15 or 20 would carefully follow the directions of a teacher and copy a

single model; now groups work out their own ideas in different mediums, some modeling, some painting, some making hooked rugs after their own individual designs, and still others doing wood block printing. Practically every national organization with a recreation program now includes handicraft in its list of activities.

CONSULT: Best-Maugard, Adolfo: *A Method for Creative Design*, 1926; Haas, Louis J.: *Art Metal Work and Jewelry*, 1916; Scott, Ina: *Handicraft Bibliography*, 1930 (mimeographed), prepared by the Westchester County Recreation Commission (White Plains, N. Y.); Gill, Anna: *Practical Basketry*, 1916.

CHESTER GEPPERT MARSH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

ASSOCIATED CHARITIES. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

ASSOCIATIONS FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

ATHLETICS. *See* AMATEUR OUTDOOR ATHLETICS AND SPORTS.

ATTENDANCE OFFICERS. *See* COMPULSORY EDUCATION

BASTARDY. *See* CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK.

BATHING PLACES. Swimming has grown to be an organized sport, supervised under definite rules. Artificial pools are frequently built adjacent to bathing beaches, and in many communities both pool and beach are operated by the municipal or county government, or privately under a single franchise. Health authorities agree that an artificial pool, if properly designed, equipped, and maintained, is far safer and more sanitary than any bathing beach.

Wading pools are used to instill a love of water into very small children, and to dispel the fear of water which is inherent in most of them. After children have played in a wading pool, it is easy to teach them to swim. Some playground workers believe that children should learn swimming in wading pools. Most health authorities, however, are against that practice because it involves applying to wading pools the same standards of construction, sanitary maintenance, and supervision that are required for swimming pools. In some places the problem has been solved by placing a separate wading pool near to the swimming pool, both using the same re-filtration system. Such a system is now standard equipment for outdoor pools and is advised as a sanitary and economic measure. Wherever either artificial or natural sand beaches surround pools operated by commercial amusement parks, many precautionary measures are necessary, such as constant policing, frequent cleaning, and daily disinfecting treatment.

The safety and consequent popularity of pools as places in which to swim and play are due largely to the activities of the national agencies referred to later in this article. Furthermore, the regulations as to pools that are in effect in 29 states, and contemplated by many more, have added greatly to public confidence concerning them. The report presented in 1927 by the Joint Committee on Bathing Places of the Conference of State Sanitary Engineers and the American Public Health Association on standards for the design, equipment, and operation of swimming pools and other bathing places has been used as a guide in many states. In that report the Committee recommended that bathing waters at public bathing places on natural streams, lakes, and tidal waters should be of the same standard of bacterial quality as is required for swimming pools. In October, 1929, the Committee modified that recommendation, and conceded that the strict application of swimming water standards to all public bathing waters would probably not be practicable at present; and the report concluded with the statement that "the bathing beach problem is one which

should properly be worked out by local and state authorities for the best interests of all concerned in each particular locality, unhampered by any empirical standards."

CONSULT: American Public Health Association and Conference of State Sanitary Engineers, Joint Committee on Bathing Places: "Report on Swimming Pools and Other Bathing Places," in *American Journal of Public Health*, February, 1928; "State Regulations Pertaining to Public Bathing Places," in *Journal of the American Association for Hygiene and Baths*, January, 1930; reports and periodicals of the national agencies listed on page 580 in NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, under the title of this article.

ARTHUR MORTON CRANE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

BEACHES. *See* BATHING PLACES.

BEGGING or the asking for alms, particularly in public places, is usually covered by the vagrancy laws of a state or the ordinances of a city. The accepted legal definition of beggars, derived from English law, is "persons wandering abroad or placing themselves in any public place, street or highway, court or passage, to beg or gather alms." It does not include begging by mail, which appears not to be an offense under the federal postal laws.

History and Present Status. One of the earliest steps in modern times to combat begging was taken in 1902 when the Charity Organization Society of New York employed a mendicancy officer. He in turn obtained the assignment of city detectives. These became known as the "mendicancy squad," through which thousands of arrests were made annually. This arrangement continued until about 1905, when the Charity Organization Society took the position that the responsibility properly belonged to the police. The assistant to that mendicancy officer has since been employed, however, with substantial success in a similar activity for the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. In 1909 a national body was created, known as the National Association for the Prevention of Mendicancy and Charitable Imposture. Its scope was defined as follows in the New York Charities Directory: "To repress knavish imposture; to aid and strengthen the crippled in body or sick in mind, the discouraged and friendless who may be in a way to become mendicant or impostors, or who may have already become such. Seeks especially to prevent mendicancy by creating a public opinion which may tend to restrict certain street trades, as newsdealing, and so forth, to crippled, incapacitated men and women." This society no longer exists.

The enforcement of laws and ordinances against begging has been made even more difficult because of the popular sympathy readily aroused by beggars, particularly if they are blind, aged, deformed, or infirm. Beggars prefer to exploit their infirmities to a sympathetic public rather than to be cared for or make a living through employment. Their gains from begging are usually greater than their earnings would be if they worked at regular occupations. The police and the courts share the public attitude and are reluctant to arrest or correct beggars who are handicapped in any degree. Then, too, licensing authorities are prone to issue peddling licenses, without investigation, to those who are likely to use them as a mere pretense for soliciting alms.

The right to use a license as a pretext for begging was decided in the Circuit Court of St. Louis. The defendant contended that he was not begging because he had some merchandise and possessed a peddler's license. The judge held that the defendant's passive reception of money, without an exchange of merchandise, showed that he was in reality begging (Circuit Court Case No. 136,494).

In New York a decision of many years ago (*In re* Haller, 12 Hun, 131, 132) held that spoken words are not necessary to constitute begging, but that the attitude and actions of the accused are to be considered.

Since so many beggars are crippled or blind, the real problem is proper provision for their rehabilitation and vocational training. They cannot well be imprisoned or forcibly removed from the streets unless care or opportunity for employment is afforded them. Where a social agency is instrumental in obtaining a handicapped beggar's arrest, it is likely to receive little consideration either from the police or the courts unless it is prepared to do something definite for the beggar's welfare.

Little comprehensive information is available on the subject of street begging. A Committee on the Homeless of the Welfare Council of New York has been accumulating data and studying the subject recently. Since 1928 a Citizens' Anti-Begging Committee has been operating in St. Louis with a staff of its own and has issued a statistical analysis of the cases it has studied. The problem has been attacked with various degrees of success in Atlanta, Boston, Des Moines, Harrisburg, Louisville, St. Louis, and other American cities within the year.

A general policy which embodies the conclusions of many who have had experience in this field may be stated as follows: (a) The few persons who beg only occasionally, and from real need in emergencies, should be directed to social agencies for attention. (b) The sturdy, professional beggar should be set to work on a farm colony until he is ready to accept work outside. (c) The less able-bodied, but not blind or crippled persons, should be sent to farm or industrial colonies to work as much as they can and to be rehabilitated, so far as possible, for return to society. (d) The comparatively well, crippled, or blind beggar should be helped by the city or private agencies to obtain vocational training or a suitable occupation—such as selling newspapers, candy, or other simple wares at public stands which are now usually in the hands of the able-bodied. (e) Those too disabled to attain a fair degree of economic independence or to be trained to that end should receive the shelter, expert care, and occupation which will best suit their individual cases and keep their families from want. (f) Disabled, nonresident beggars should be returned to their respective communities, as far as possible. (g) Licensing authorities should investigate carefully all applications for peddling licenses when made by the handicapped or fakers, and reject all requests for licenses when vending is apparently to be a mere cloak for begging. (h) Beggars and fake vendors of all sorts should be rigidly excluded from the approaches, stations, and cars of all transit companies. (i) Means to care for handicapped mendicants should be established and then the vagrancy laws, including house to house begging and begging in public places, should be rigidly enforced. If a blind or crippled beggar refuses adequate care or employment the magistrates should promptly commit him for a substantial period.

CONSULT: "How Columbus Prevents Begging," in the *Survey*, May 10, 1919; "Two of Louisville's Ex-Beggars," in the *Survey*, April 12, 1919; Raymond, Stockton: "An Attempt to Eliminate Street Begging," in *The Family*, May, 1925; Stein, Gertrude: "How About Beggars," in the *Survey*, December 15, 1926; and Gilmore, Harlan W.: "The Social Control of Begging," in *The Family*, October, 1929; an (unpublished) analysis of 59 beggar cases (Citizens' Anti-Begging Committee of St. Louis, 208 North 14th Street), 1929; and "Begging in Chicago" (unpublished, but summarized in *Report of the Wieboldt Foundation*), 1925.

W. BRUCE COBB

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19.

BEHAVIOR PROBLEM CHILDREN. *See* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

BENEVOLENT ORDERS. *See* FRATERNAL ORDERS.

BIRTH CONTROL. The general aim of the birth control movement is to legitimatize the practice of contraception through scientific and hygienic methods, and to educate the adult public as to its advantages from the personal and social points of view. Inter-

national in scope, the movement has been known under a number of names; in the British Empire as "neo-malthusianism"; in France as "conscious generation"; and occasionally as "voluntary parenthood."

History and Present Status. In English-speaking countries the present movement derives from Malthus. In the second edition of his famous *Essay on Population*, published in 1803, the English clergyman first enunciated his law of the pressure of population upon the means of subsistence. The only solution he suggested for overpopulation was the practice of celibacy and late marriage. In 1826 Dr. Charles Knowlton, a Boston physician, was prosecuted for publishing a small book, *The Fruits of Philosophy*, advocating mechanical and chemical methods of contraception. In 1876–1877 Charles Bradlaugh and Mrs. Annie Besant were prosecuted and convicted for distributing that book among the working classes of Great Britain. Their conviction led to the foundation of the Malthusian League in 1878 by Dr. Charles Drysdale and his wife, Dr. Alice Vickery Drysdale. A Dutch League was founded in 1881. The neo-malthusians differed from Malthus in advocating contraception to prevent overpopulation and to reduce the birth rate.

The period between 1914 and 1921 in the United States was one of militant agitation and widespread publicity, partly as a result of several convictions of persons active in the movement for challenging federal and state laws. In New York City in 1914 Mrs. Margaret Sanger began to advocate contraception on feministic and libertarian grounds, coining at that time the term "birth control." The interest awakened in the whole question of contraception resulted in the foundation of the Voluntary Parenthood League in 1919 and of the American Birth Control League in 1921; also in the publication of a monthly periodical, the *Birth Control Review*, edited by Mrs. Sanger.

Activities of the second period of the American movement, from 1921 to 1925, included the organization of local leagues, the education of public opinion, and campaigns for the amendment of statutes which class the practice of contraception with obscenity and criminal abortion. During the third period, 1925 to the present, advocates of birth control have concentrated upon the establishment of clinics and research bureaus, and upon enlisting the interest and activities of physicians, biologists, biochemists, and social scientists generally. Results of these efforts are seen in the fact that no less than 55 clinics and bureaus are now operating legitimately in the United States (covering 23 cities and 13 states), dispensing contraceptive information to all persons legally permitted to receive it. In New York State it is given to married people for the cure or prevention of disease. In California there are 12 clinics; there is one each in Baltimore, Cincinnati, Cleveland, Denver, Detroit, Newark, New Haven, and Philadelphia; there are six in Chicago; and New York City has eight in hospitals and one operating independently. In addition, a branch for colored women has recently been established in the Harlem section of New York City by the Clinical Research Bureau.

The year 1929 was marked by the establishment of 27 new clinics. The successful operation of such clinics and research bureaus, under medical direction, makes possible the scientific analysis of individual cases, and also statistical studies. Through the latter material is being developed for the replacement of untested theory with impartial analysis. Social agencies are beginning to cooperate with such clinics. Owing to the widespread change in public opinion, physicians are more willing to give advice in private practice. Over 10,000 of them have expressed willingness to do so.

The birth control movement is exerting a noticeable influence upon eugenics and giving a new direction to programs for race-betterment; it has resulted in renewed consideration of the problem of the legal sterilization of the unfit; and has influenced programs for

the control of dependent, delinquent, and defective groups in society. It has been given consideration by many social agencies seeking to decrease maternal and infant mortality rates, particularly by the Committee on Maternal Health of New York City. Financial support of the birth control movement has been from independent and anonymous sources, with the exception of temporary support from the Brush Foundation of Cleveland. During 1929 a study of 10,000 cases was made by the Birth Control Clinical Research Bureau, and a study of fertility and sterility by the Committee on Maternal Health.

Legislation, 1929. No laws on the subject were passed during the year. Bills to amend the laws which prohibit contraceptive instruction were defeated in New York and Connecticut.

CONSULT: Meyer, Adolf: *Birth Control—Facts and Responsibilities*, 1925; Haire, Norman: *Some More Medical Views on Birth Control*, 1928; Sanger, Margaret: *Pivot of Civilization*, 1922, and *Motherhood in Bondage*, 1928; Knopf, S. Adolph: *Various Aspects of Birth Control* (revised edition), 1928.

MRS. MARGARET SANGER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

BIRTH STATISTICS. *See* VITAL AND HEALTH STATISTICS.

THE BLIND. There are many points of view from which blindness may be defined. To the physician it is a condition—the absence of sight; to the social worker or the educator it is a cause—a restriction which keeps one from full participation in the educational, employment, and recreational facilities of the community.

Roughly speaking, a child with less than one-tenth vision, or with an eye condition which makes school work unsafe if conducted in the ordinary way, is educationally blind. There is, however, a large additional group of children, with vision ranging from one-tenth to one-third, for whom special sight-saving classes must be organized if they are to receive fair treatment at the hands of the school authorities. The adult with less than one-tenth vision is so limited in his choice of occupations as to be considered vocationally blind. There are, though, many persons possessing more than one-tenth vision who are so handicapped vocationally that they require the assistance of agencies for the blind. The ratio of the blind to the general population in this country is usually estimated at about one to one thousand. The incidence of blindness varies little geographically except in districts like eastern Kentucky, southern Illinois, and southern Missouri, where the prevalence of trachoma raises the ratio to a marked degree. A recent calculation based on estimates from agencies for the blind indicates that in 1929 there were about 114,000 blind people in the country. This total is much higher than that shown by the census, first because the Census Bureau's definition of blindness is quite restricted; and second, because many blind people are overlooked. According to the census of 1920 the age distribution of blind people was as follows:

Age Group	*Per Cent*
Under 5 years (Pre-school)	0.7
5 to 19 years (School)	11.9
20 to 34 years (Employable but probably in need of vocational training and adjustment)	11.5
35 to 49 years (Employable)	15.6
50 to 64 years (Possibly employable, but opportunities limited by age)	20.8
65 years and over (Probably unemployable)	39.5

The group between 5 and 19 years was probably more completely reported than any other, since children in the residential schools for the blind would be easily located by the enumerators. Similarly, the group under 5 years is probably the most incompletely reported, owing to the difficulty of locating young blind children and of determining whether they are blind or not. The large proportion of blind past 50 years of age—

over 60 per cent—is to be noted; many of these would be too handicapped by age and sickness to be self-supporting even if they could see. It is important that the public should distinguish between these and the young capable blind who ask only for opportunity. Age at losing sight is also an important consideration in the rehabilitation of the blind, and it is interesting to note that the census of 1920 showed that 65 per cent of blind people lost their sight after school age had been passed.

History and Present Status. There are in the United States 54 residential schools and 21 city day schools for the blind. The three oldest schools in the country—the New York Institute for the Education of the Blind, the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, and Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind—were organized at about the same time, 1832. These institutions are under private management, but they have received state grants almost from the start and the states now furnish a large share of their support. The first state school for the blind was established by Ohio in 1837. Today every state either conducts a residential school of its own or has a working arrangement by which it pays the cost of educating its blind children in a similar school in a neighboring state. Approximately 5,500 pupils were enrolled during 1929 in the 54 residential schools for the blind, private and public. The first day school for the blind was organized by the City of Chicago in 1900. Since that time 20 cities have followed Chicago's lead, these schools enrolling in 1929 about 440 pupils. Special institutions of higher learning for the blind have never found much favor in the United States, but many blind men and women attend the regular colleges and universities. Through the efforts of Dr. Newel Perry, now a teacher in the California School for the Blind, New York State in 1907 established scholarships of $300 a year to employ "readers" for blind students attending institutions of higher learning in that state. At present 21 states have similar scholarships, varying from $100 to an indefinite amount and limited only by the appropriation and the requirement of the student.

Schools for blind children had not been long in operation before it became evident that the academic and vocational training afforded children in such schools did not solve the employment problem of the blind. Accordingly several employment institutions with boarding facilities were opened, some operated by the state and others receiving more or less state support. But as the activities of these employment institutions were quite restricted, state commissions or departments came to be organized to care for the general needs of the blind, especially adults. Twenty-six states now have such agencies, with varying scopes of service. Among the activities conducted by most state commissions is home teaching. This work is carried on usually by blind persons who call at the homes of blind adults who have never attended schools for the blind. Instruction is given in finger reading and in simple manual occupations, and the blind person is helped in other ways to adjust himself to his situation.

Blindness is so definite a cause of poverty that special provision of public relief for the needy blind has long been demanded. In 1903 Illinois inaugurated special county relief for the blind. This was popularly known as a "pension." At the end of 1929 there were 21 states having such special relief laws for the blind, and efforts were being made by organizations of blind people to write similar laws on the statute books of other states. In several large cities private associations for the blind have been organized to carry on such activities as home teaching, placement work, sheltered workshops, recreation projects, and eye clinics. As a rule these associations offer little material relief, preferring to leave that function to family welfare agencies.

Owing to the limited market for books for the blind their publication has never been commercially possible. Finger readers have

therefore had to depend either upon philanthropy or upon public funds for their reading matter. School books for the past half century have been largely supplied by the federal government, operating through the American Printing House for the Blind, in Louisville. Because of the great cost and bulk of books in raised type, few blind people own them, and not many communities feel justified in establishing libraries for the blind. A few public libraries which have such collections very generously lend their books over a far larger territory than they ordinarily serve, sometimes over several states. To facilitate circulation the post-office transmits such literature through the mails free of charge. In 1907 Mrs. Matilda Ziegler, of New York City, established the *Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind,* a monthly periodical which is sent free to any sightless person in the United States or Canada. A number of other secular and religious magazines have been started since. The Lions International has adopted work for the blind as one of its major activities. It publishes a magazine in braille for blind children and has helped to inaugurate work for the adult blind in several states.

Workers for the blind find that perhaps their chief task is finding remunerative employment for their clients. The employment field is narrowed not only by the limitations imposed by blindness, but also by the lack of confidence on the part of the seeing public in the productive powers of the blind. Employed blind people may be divided into four classes: first, those who have set up for themselves in business or in professions; second, those who are employed side by side with the seeing in factories and commercial establishments; third, those employed in sheltered workshops; and fourth, those working in their own homes under the supervision of a central agency for the blind. To the blind man with some business acumen, a commercial enterprise usually affords the best opportunity for success. These enterprises represent almost every line of business, from the management of a peanut stand to the presidency of a bank. Wherever salesmanship, personality, or executive ability are of first importance, there are to be found blind men in positions of trust. Most blind people, however, like their seeing brothers, must be wage-earners, leaving management to those with special abilities.

Until the beginning of the present century the blind man who had found work as an ordinary factory hand was rare indeed. About 25 years ago, however, Charles F. F. Campbell, an enthusiastic young worker for the blind in Massachusetts, became convinced that there were more jobs in industry which blind people could fill than there were blind people to fill them. He demonstrated his contention to a limited extent, but the employment of blind people in industry did not become widespread until the years of the World War. Most of the blind who obtained positions at that time lost them during the industrial recession about 1921. Owing to the rapid development of labor-saving machinery, to the restricting effect of insurance regulations, and to the increasing difficulty for various reasons of inducing industry to assume responsibility for the employment of the handicapped, the number of blind people now working in factories constitutes but a small proportion of those so engaged at the close of the war.

In most large cities may be found one or two small sheltered workshops employing a dozen or more men. These shops usually operate at a loss, and the deficit is made up through either private philanthropy or taxation. The commonest activities carried on are chair caning and the manufacture of brooms, mops, rugs, and reed ware. Because blindness handicaps individual workers to a varying degree, wages are usually paid by piece rate. *See* SHELTERED WORKSHOPS.

Many state commissions and city associations arrange to sell the products made by the blind in their homes. In some cases the organization supplies the material and pays for the labor upon delivery of the completed work. In other instances the workers furnish their own material and the organization

sells the articles, returning the amount of the purchase price to the blind workers. There is usually no charge for selling service. Articles so manufactured include dish towels, aprons, rugs, baskets, crocheted and knitted wear, and stuffed toys.

Developments and Events, 1929. The outstanding events of the year, aside from legislative changes, were of an international character. Preliminary steps were taken to call a World Conference of Specialists in Work for the Blind, to be held in New York City in 1931. As the result of a conference held in Paris in April, 1929, France, Germany, Great Britain, Italy, and the United States adopted a common code for the publishing of Braille music, so that music embossed in any of these countries will henceforth be usable by the blind in other countries. During the year the American Foundation for the Blind made a study of stand concessions operated by the blind and a survey of library work for them in the United States, and had in preparation a manual for home teachers. Surveys were also conducted by the Subcommittee on the Visually Handicapped of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

Legislation, 1929. During the year Wyoming (Ch. 160) and Florida (Ch. 13,578) established state departments for the blind; Vermont (No. 32) made an appropriation which allowed the inauguration of work previously authorized; California passed a new law (Ch. 529) providing county relief up to $600 a year to the blind; Maryland, a new law (Ch. 271) providing relief up to $250 a year, to be administered by the Maryland Workshop for the Blind; and Nevada passed an amendment (Ch. 68) increasing the maximum of county blind relief to $600 a year. California passed a bill (Ch. 845) establishing workshops for the blind and other handicapped persons in Los Angeles.

CONSULT: Best, Harry: *The Blind,* 1919; French, R. S.: *The Education of the Blind* (Berkeley, Calif., School for the Blind), 1924–1925; Allen, Edward E.: *A Survey of the Work for the Blind in the United States from the Beginning Until Now* (Proceedings of the Twenty-eighth Biennial Convention of American Instructors of the Blind), 1926; Irwin and McKay: *Blind Relief Laws—Their Theory and Practice,* 1929; *Proceedings* of the American Association of Instructors of the Blind, and the American Association of Workers for the Blind; American Foundation for the Blind: *Directory of Activities for the Blind in the United States and Canada,* 1926, *Laws Governing State Commissions and Departments for the Blind* (revised), 1929, and issues of the *Outlook for the Blind;* Brown, Lela T.: *Insurance Underwriting—A Study of the Business in Relation to Blind Agents,* 1928, and *Osteopathy—Opportunities for the Blind in Training and Practice,* 1929.

ROBERT B. IRWIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

BLINDNESS, PREVENTION OF. In the effort to reduce blindness much work of necessity must be concentrated on the causes which produce the largest amount of blindness and which show some likelihood of yielding to concerted action. Among the major causes of blindness are: ophthalmia neonatorum (babies' sore eyes), venereal disease (gonorrhea and syphilis), trachoma, glaucoma, cataract, and accidents (general and industrial). In addition to these there are many other causes of relatively minor importance, if measured by the aggregate number of cases involved. Much of the blindness due to them can be prevented through prompt and continued treatment by an oculist. It is generally agreed also that much of the blindness from the major causes is preventable; the estimates run from 50 to 75 per cent. Ophthalmia neonatorum, for instance, was formerly responsible for more than 30 per cent of the blindness among children entering schools for the blind in the United States; in 1929 it was responsible for but 9.3 per cent. Trachoma is another cause of blindness which might be entirely eliminated; and the organized efforts to combat venereal disease, if successful, would still

further reduce the number of those who are unnecessarily deprived of sight.

History and Present Status. The record of organized activities in this field covers a period of many years and represents the work of many different types of agencies, public and private. Among the governmental bodies are the federal, state, or municipal departments whose major interest is health, or labor conditions, or education; and also the commissions or councils created by some states especially for work with the blind.

The United States Public Health Service, in cooperation with the states, is active in establishing relief measures for trachoma, and maintains a quarantine service to exclude immigrants afflicted with this disease. It has also engaged in epidemiologic studies and laboratory research to determine the cause of trachoma, has gathered data regarding legal provisions for lessening ophthalmia neonatorum, and has published reports concerning venereal disease as a cause of blindness. It has likewise conducted several studies to determine the conditions of eyesight among school children. State boards of health, in connection with their activities for the control of communicable diseases, are helping to reduce trachoma and venereal disease. Most states have now enacted legislation which makes mandatory the disinfection of all babies' eyes at birth, thus lessening the likelihood of ophthalmia neonatorum. In addition the elimination of such diseases as diphtheria, measles, smallpox, and so forth, prevents some blindness.

Municipal boards of health cooperate with public school systems in providing medical inspection which usually includes the examination of the eyes of school children. This has led to much preventive work. Public schools are concerning themselves with proper illumination, legibility of textbooks, and the removing of defective vision through doctors' care and provision of glasses at cost or free. Inasmuch as defective vision is often the result of other physical conditions, any general school health activities have as a by-product valuable results in the conservation of eyesight. Public schools also maintain sight-saving classes for pupils whose defective vision makes it difficult or impossible for them to carry on the usual work of the school. The first sight-saving class was established in 1913. At the present time there are 334 classes in 21 states and 93 cities. It is estimated that approximately one child in every five hundred should have the benefits of a sight-saving class. Both health and educational authorities participate in the establishment and maintenance of such classes. State boards of education and the federal Office of Education are interested in and help to promote these developments in the schools. *See* School Hygiene and Education, State Agencies.

Another group of public agencies deeply interested in the prevention of blindness are those which deal with industry. The federal Department of Labor, in collecting statistics on various kinds of accidents, includes figures on blindness or impaired vision resulting from accident. It also studies industrial diseases which may result in blindness or impaired vision, and preventive measures to avoid them. State labor departments which administer state compensation acts are charged with the provision of medical and surgical measures to restore sight. Usually, also, they are responsible for factory inspection, and often for formulating regulations to safeguard conditions of employment. To reduce accident hazard they require installation of protective devices, use of goggles, and so forth, with a consequent reduction of catastrophies to the eyes. *See* Labor, State Agencies and Industrial Accidents.

State commissions or councils for the blind are usually charged with some responsibility for the prevention of blindness, but the activities actually carried on vary greatly in different states. The commissions in Massachusetts, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, and Virginia, the Pennsylvania State Council, and the Connecticut State Board of Education for the Blind are among the most active in the field of prevention.

Blindness, Prevention of

Private agencies which carry on work for the prevention of blindness are of two kinds; those organized for this single purpose and those for which activities in this field are merely incidental to their general purpose. The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, organized in 1915, is the only national agency of the first type. It conducts surveys, advocates preventive legislation, carries on educational publicity, and cooperates with other agencies which have a responsibility for conserving sight. It is the best source of information about the sociological, economic, and health aspects of blindness and its prevention. It has no state branches and has never actively promoted the organization of local chapters. There are at the present time, however, two active local societies—the Illinois Society for the Prevention of Blindness and the Maryland Society for the Prevention of Blindness—each of which has its own budget and is undertaking local educational propaganda as well as case work for the prevention of blindness.

The National Safety Council is active in this field as in the prevention of other handicaps. Through traveling exhibits, lectures, and publications, it endeavors to demonstrate appliances and programs designed to lessen the danger of accidental loss of eyesight, and also tries to win the cooperation of industrial concerns and their employes in observing reasonable precautions. The Council likewise works through them in educating their families to the necessity of protecting the eyes from undue strain or accidental injury.

Among other national agencies with which the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness regularly cooperates are the following: American Child Health Association, American Foundation for the Blind, American Medical Association, American Public Health Association, American National Red Cross, American Social Hygiene Association, National Education Association, and National Organization for Public Health Nursing. See their listings in Part II of this volume.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Training in social case work is very desirable for any case worker in the field of prevention of blindness. A great part of such case work is carried on by social workers whose major activities are in family welfare or other fields. Social case workers in eye hospitals or clinics, or in state commissions and local associations for the blind, are among the relatively few who are employed entirely in the field of prevention of blindness. For such work the prerequisite is usually an approved course in public health nursing or in social work. Only rarely can persons qualified in both fields be secured. It is necessary therefore for the trained nurse to obtain some knowledge of social case work, or for the social worker to gain some knowledge of medical case work in the field of preventing blindness.

Training for teachers of sight-saving classes is almost indispensable because of the special equipment and technique involved in teaching children with seriously defective vision. The National Society for the Prevention of Blindness has aided various educational centers in offering such training. During 1929 it cooperated with four universities. In addition, courses were conducted at the Case School of Applied Science in Cleveland, the University of Detroit, and New York University. Full-time courses usually cover a summer session of six weeks.

Developments and Events, 1929. At the close of the International Congress of Ophthalmology, held during the year in Holland, an International Association for the Prevention of Blindness was organized, with headquarters in Paris. The general aims of the International Association are similar to those of the National Society in this country.

In November the National Society for the Prevention of Blindness held a conference in St. Louis which discussed particularly cooperative relationships in the field, from the points of view of official and volunteer agencies primarily concerned with work for the blind and of official agencies responsible for the prevention of blindness. During the

year also the Society compiled findings based on the inspection of the eyes of about 1,000 preschool children. It also put into effect an active cooperative relationship with the American Federation of Labor. Members of the Society's staff were called upon to address industrial groups throughout the country, and to prepare articles for labor publications.

One of the outstanding benefactions of the year was a grant of $250,000 by the Commonwealth Fund to Washington University, in St. Louis, for the purpose of carrying on research in the field of trachoma. The Leslie Dana Medal was bestowed by the Missouri Association for the Blind on Hofrat Ernst Fuchs, of Vienna, this being the first time that this award was made outside of the United States. It is bestowed each year on a person chosen for distinguished service, lay or professional, in the field of conservation of vision and prevention of blindness.

CONSULT: National Society for the Prevention of Blindness: *Eyes Saved in Industry*, 1930, *A Special Inquiry on Conservation of Vision in Philadelphia*, 1929, *Publications on Preventing Blindness*, 1930, *Conserving the Sight of School Children*, 1928, *Eye Hazards in Industrial Occupations*, 1924, *Sight-Saving Classes: Their Organization and Administration*, 1927, and *Testing the Vision of Preschool Children*, 1928; League of Red Cross Societies: *The Prevention of Blindness*, 1929; and Myers, Edward T.: *A Survey of Sight Saving Classes in the United States*, 1930.

LEWIS H. CARRIS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

BOARDING CENTERS FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN. *See* HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN.

BOARDING HOMES FOR CHILDREN. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN; and DELINQUENT CHILDREN, FOSTER HOME CARE.

BOARDING HOMES FOR THE AGED. *See* THE AGED.

BOY RANGERS. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

BOY SCOUTS. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

BOYS' CLUBS. This article covers urban club work for boys which is independently organized. Clubs here described are usually known by the distinct title "Boys' Clubs," and ordinarily have their own buildings or quarters. They are to be distinguished from boys' clubs not separately organized but carried on by other more comprehensive institutional agencies, such as social settlements, Young Men's Christian Associations, Knights of Columbus, or Jewish Centers. For boys' clubs under the auspices mentioned *see* SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS and YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS. For rural boys' clubs *see* RURAL RECREATION. Although scouting and similar activities are carried on by many boys' clubs, the distinctive features of such special programs are described only in the article on SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

The history of the Boys' Club movement in America dates back to the period immediately following the Civil War. Indeed, just prior to that time, a Boys' Club was maintained in Hartford which provided quarters available to boys at all hours, with a reading room, a games room, and social activities. In 1868 the Salem Fraternity was organized; this Club has had a continuous and unbroken record of service. Like a number of others established soon after, the basic purpose of these Clubs was to provide within a congested area of the city a place to which boys might resort in their leisure time and find warmth, hospitality, companionship, and activities which would be interesting to them. The ideal from the beginning has been to avoid a standardized program and to allow the largest possible freedom for the inauguration of activities

that would be the expression of the boy's own desires. Only when such an institution has been able to give the boy opportunity to do the thing which he has wanted to do has it measured up to the best traditions of the movement.

About 30 years ago a score or more of Boys' Clubs in operation in the New England cities and towns began to achieve such unanimity of purpose and thinking that they desired more intimate contact with one another. Several tentative organizations were undertaken and finally in 1906 at a meeting in Boston the Boys' Club Federation was launched. This has been the central clearing house for the interests and activities of local Clubs ever since.

Present Status. Certain criteria in Boys' Club work were then agreed upon which distinguish the Clubs at present affiliated with the national movement. The most significant of these is their nonsectarian character. As the only practical way to make this decision effective, the stand was taken that clubs which include religious training in their activities are not eligible for membership. This has not eliminated the spirit of religion from the activities of member Clubs, but it has led to a constant reiteration of the principle that religious training as such is the function of the home and the church, and not of the agency which deals with the leisure time of the boys. From the beginning the Federation has included a number of Boys' Clubs which are financed by religious organizations—such as churches and church, charitable, or welfare organizations—but in every instance the institution itself has eliminated religious instruction from its program.

At the present time there are 248 Boys' Clubs affiliated with the national body. They are located in 125 cities and have a total membership of slightly over 230,000 boys. Almost without exception these boys pay a modest membership fee ranging from 25 cents to $3.00 a year. By far the greater proportion of the membership is between the ages of 8 and 16; younger members are found in a number of Clubs, and some Clubs have featured service to older boys in so-called "senior divisions."

Most Boys' Clubs are independent social service units with their own boards of directors, supported by the usual methods in use by philanthropic organizations—in about one-third of the cases by a community chest. Often the organization owns its building. In all, 112 such club-owned buildings are reported, representing a total appraised valuation of $14,000,000 and with endowment funds of $4,000,000. Many Boys' Clubs are operated in rented quarters, an old factory, store room, or similar building being remodeled and adapted to the program provided. The boys' work departments of social settlements, community centers, and institutional churches represent about one-fourth of the total membership of the organization. *See* Social Settlements and Community Centers.

Training Requirements. Since each Boys' Club is an independent unit, there are no uniform requirements for the employment of staff members. In almost all of the larger organizations, however, will be found a man with very definite training for his work, and a number of these have been sending out to other Boys' Clubs men who have had practical training as assistants in the larger organizations. Since 1918 Teachers College, Columbia University, has offered a special course consisting of six weeks of intensive training, with 60 hours of class-room work. Of the 207 students who have graduated, about one-half are now found among the 593 professionally employed workers in the Boys' Clubs. In addition to these trained workers, there are those who have come up through the settlement field and from the training courses offered by the Young Men's Christian Association, the National Recreation Association, and the Boy Scouts. *See* Youth Service Associations, Recreation, and Scouting and Related Organizations. About 20 men have entered Boys' Club work

after a considerable period of service as probation officers in the juvenile court.

The most significant development during the last year or two has been the evolution of more uniform programs and methods. While the principle of local autonomy and the adaptation of the program to local needs and available equipment has been rigidly preserved, the affiliated Boys' Clubs have more and more been learning from contacts with one another and have been putting into operation plans and methods which have proved successful in other places. A commission made up of professional workers recently adopted a series of standards by means of which each organization might rate the efficiency of its program. A second outstanding development has been the increasing interest in the movement shown by those especially concerned with the Negro problem in urban areas in the North, as well as in the South. In Chicago, Philadelphia, Savannah, and Brooklyn there are Boys' Clubs which serve large groups of Negro children. They have been so successful in enlisting the support of the community that this type of service to colored boys, who have been designated the most underprivileged class in the juvenile population, is being increasingly urged as a concern for the immediate future.

In the spring of 1928 the Bureau of Social Hygiene made a grant of $36,000 to the Department of Sociology of New York University for a study of the work of one of the largest and most modern organizations in existence—the Boys' Club which opened its doors early in 1928 at 111th Street and First Avenue, New York City. This study, which will cover the effect of the Club upon the boys and the community life over a three or four year period, is more intensive and thorough than any study previously attempted in relation to a boys' work organization. It is being made by the University without any oversight or direction on the part of the Boys' Club or the Federation except in so far as the former, in common with a score of other social agencies serving the same area, is cooperating by furnishing available data and information. A report of the findings is expected in the fall of 1931.

CONSULT: *Boys' Clubs—A National Movement*, 1930, and issues of the *Boys' Club Round Table* and the *News Bulletin*. (All published by the Boys' Club Federation of America.)

R. K. ATKINSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

BUILDING REGULATIONS. *See* HOUSING.

BUREAUS FOR THE HANDICAPPED. *See* PLACEMENT OF THE HANDICAPPED and SHELTERED WORKSHOPS.

BUREAUS OF CHARITY, SOCIAL SERVICE, OR SOCIAL WELFARE. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

BUSINESS MEN'S SERVICE CLUBS. Since the membership of business men's service clubs is usually a cross section of the local business and professional community, improved business and civic affairs are major interests of such bodies. Through their membership service clubs are closely allied with local chambers of commerce, and are usually on that account strong factors in determining the kinds of activities furthered by these organizations. Because their membership is limited in the interests represented, such clubs usually consider that the best service they can render in general civic matters is in initiating projects and commending them to the general public. Most clubs have also, as one of their purposes, the stimulation of individual members to active personal participation in worth-while community projects. The attitude of service clubs on welfare matters is well defined in the following quotation from a Rotary Club handbook: "Rotarians should look upon their membership as a stimulus and demand to them to render the greatest possible service of which they are capable to all those agencies that

work for the development of the business and social welfare of the community."

Since service clubs exist in widely varied types of communities, a great diversity of activities is found. Some kind of work for children is common to most of them, ranging from picnics for orphans to the exceedingly well planned and skilful service of the International Society for Crippled Children, whose membership and backing come almost exclusively from service clubs. Group work, relief programs, work with crippled children and with the blind make the strongest appeal. Short-time responsibility for projects or endorsements is a usual policy. Some clubs are prohibited by their rules from engaging their efforts for more than a year at a time.

The comparatively recent widespread development of these clubs, and their local autonomy in determining what sort of welfare projects to undertake, are responsible for the absence of reliable figures as to the types of their activities and the number of children served. This latter, however, runs into the thousands. In a few communities councils of representatives from the several service clubs have been developed in the interest of coordinated effort.

Among the service clubs, Kiwanis, Rotary, Lions, Exchange, Excelsior, Salesmanship, Gyro, and Knights of the Round Table are the most widely organized. The three clubs first named are the oldest. Literature describing the activities recommended to local clubs may be obtained from the national offices. The Lions accept work for the blind and for cripples as their special field. Rotary has made boys' work its program, but it also approves work with the crippled. Kiwanis has a general program for service to underprivileged children. Representative types of work undertaken by local organizations are: The support of boys' club work, "knot-hole gangs," working boys' homes, and other boys' homes on a small scale; the promotion of both local and statewide work with crippled children, and of sight conservation and work with the blind; the establishment of clinics for crippled and other children, special classes for handicapped children in public schools, and preventoria; the employment of public health and other nurses; the carrying on of surveys of child dependency, neglect, and delinquency; the giving of assistance, personal or financial, in health crusades; legal aid, vocational guidance, Americanization classes, student loan funds, recreation leadership courses, athletics, summer camps, social settlements, and the development of community chests and councils of social agencies; and cooperation with established social agencies in their regular work and in their campaigns for welfare legislation.

CONSULT: Proceedings of the annual meetings of the national club organizations.

C. W. ARESON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

CAMP FIRE GIRLS. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

CAMPS. *See* SUMMER CAMPS AND DAY OUTINGS.

CANCER ranked third as a cause of death in the registration area of the United States during 1928. Against it were charged 109,770 deaths, giving the disease a rate of 95.9 deaths per 100,000 of the population. Diseases which ranked above it were the organic diseases of the heart, with a rate of 207.7, and pneumonia in all its forms, with a rate of 98.0. Tuberculosis was fourth on the list, with a rate of 79.2. Thus cancer has now outranked tuberculosis as a cause of death. Its reported death rate has increased steadily in the past few years, from 83.4 in 1920 to 94.9 in 1926 and 95.6 in 1927. A part, however, of this increase is undoubtedly due to better diagnoses and to more accurate recording of the causes of death.

Although much research is being carried on in this field, the causes of cancer are still unknown. At the present time the only reasonable hope held out by medical authorities

for the cure or alleviation of the disease lies in early diagnosis and treatment. Improved techniques in the use of X-rays and radium have been developed within the past few years, and as a consequence these forms of treatment are now being more extensively used. Although much alleviation has been given, and apparently many cures have been effected, sufficient time has not yet elapsed to indicate the final efficacy of the most recent methods of radiation application. Facilities for the diagnosis and treatment of cancer are inadequate for the greater part of the country. While a number of the larger cities have clinics, most cancer patients still depend, for diagnosis and treatment, upon family physicians whose experience, especially with the early stages of the disease, is quite limited. There is a lack of free beds in hospitals, not only for cases which require treatment, but also for those which merely require care. The latter, or "terminal" cases, often remain in an institution as long as six months.

For the purpose of collecting and disseminating information in this field the American Society for the Control of Cancer was organized in 1913 through the efforts of a committee of the American Gynecological Association. The organization includes representatives from practically all the national medical organizations. Many state and county medical societies have cancer committees, whose chief activity has been the holding of meetings with special speakers on the subject.

Developments and Events, 1929. In December the American College of Surgeons announced a nation-wide campaign to establish cancer clinics with standard methods in cities of every section of the United States. These leaders have come to realize that members of their own professional group must have further education on two points: the necessity of recognizing the symptoms of cancer early, and the danger of postponing treatment. In addition, they must be impressed with the need for closer cooperation between the surgeon, the radiologist, and the pathologist; and with their own responsibility as individuals for promoting public provision of more special facilities for the diagnosis and treatment of cancer.

The research activities of the year 1929 related principally to the effects of X-rays and radium upon normal and cancer cells. These studies were carried on at the large centers, especially at the Huntington Hospital in Boston, the Institute for Cancer Research at Columbia University and the Memorial Hospital in New York City, the University of Pennsylvania Medical School, the Cancer Institute of the University of Minnesota, and the Roscoe B. Jackson Memorial Laboratory at Bar Harbor, Maine. Following a report on cancer research submitted to the United States Public Health Service by an advisory committee of consultants, a resolution was passed in the Senate directing its Commerce Committee to investigate ways and means whereby the federal government may aid in the discovery of a successful and practical cure for cancer.

During the year 900,000 leaflets and pamphlets concerning cancer were distributed by the national association; advertisements focusing attention on the early signs of cancer were placed in many national and local publications, space being contributed by them for the purpose; and state and local groups were organized to conduct cancer campaigns and disseminate information on the subject to organizations, physicians, and the lay public. The Canti film—a motion picture produced in London, showing the behavior of living tissues in vitro and the action of radium upon normal and cancer cells, and illustrating the new research methods in micro-biology—was shown before medical societies and educational institutions throughout the country.

Other outstanding events of the year, in addition to the continued promotion of additional cancer facilities by the state boards of health of Massachusetts, Pennsylvania, and Delaware, have included the following: The Chicago Women's Club organized a Cancer Research Institute in connection

with its educational campaign; the North Carolina Legislature voted $2,500 for an educational campaign covering 25 of the 100 counties of the state; Cleveland received a gift of $50,000 for the purchase of radium for the treatment of cancer among the poor; the Georgia Legislature appropriated $100,000 to the Albert Steiner Clinic in Atlanta for the construction of a building for patients from any part of the state; and the first clinic in the state for the diagnosis and treatment of cancer was opened in Manchester, N. H. As a result of these different forms of educational publicity there has been an increased attendance at clinics and increased visits to the practising physician with a demand for early examination in suspicious conditions. More definite information on the whole subject of cancer has been sought by the lay public as well as by many physicians.

In spite, however, of the many efforts to control it, the cancer death rate has continued to rise. The organizations interested have, therefore, determined on a more concerted attack on the problem during 1930, with special emphasis on the field of pure research and upon increased clinical and other facilities for early diagnosis and more adequate treatment.

CONSULT: *Report on Cancer Control of an International Symposium*, 1927, and *The American Society for the Control of Cancer*, 1925, both published by the Society.

ARTHUR H. ESTABROOK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

CARDIAC CLINICS. *See* HEART DISEASE.

CASE LOADS. *See* STATISTICS OF SOCIAL WORK.

CASE WORK. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK.

CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK. Service to the poor is looked upon by the Catholic Church as an organic part of Christian life. Beneath differences of culture, wealth, and position lies the spiritual quality of human life, outgrowth of brotherhood in Christ. It is one outcome of the divine charity to which Christ gives precedence. There is no period in the history of the Church when this does not appear in doctrine and action. Inquiry and discrimination in service to the poor are inherent in the doctrines of the early Fathers of the Church that the individual is of supreme worth and his right to the development of his God-given personality is fundamental. The present variety of activities and agencies of relief represents the energy of a spiritual conviction acting upon complex social conditions. Catholic charity is social as well as individual and its interest and influence extend to social action for the elimination and prevention of social evils.

Catholic charities embrace every type of organized service to meet human needs. They are directed and participated in both by the religious and the laity. There are in the United States 68 religious orders of men and 188 orders of women engaged in charitable and educational work. The sick are cared for in 653 hospitals, clinics or dispensaries, and nursing service is given in their own homes by 18 religious communities. Children deprived of proper parental care are cared for by institutional and non-institutional agencies. There are organizations for the relief and visitation of prisoners, for protective care for young people, day nurseries, settlements, homes for working boys and girls, working women, homeless men, and the aged. A vast amount of unorganized service is given through the regular administration of the diocesan clergy, who care for the temporal needs of their parishioners without referring them to agencies beyond the parish boundaries. The amount spent in relief through this channel is unrecorded and incalculable.

Diocesan Agencies. The present trend in organization is toward a development of diocesan agencies whose programs include coordination of the charitable services of the

dioceses. The first of these was established in 1903. Between that time and the end of 1919 similar agencies had been established in 14 dioceses. There are now 41 central diocesan agencies in as many dioceses and archdioceses, and 21 branch offices operating under the supervision of the offices in the diocesan sees. Diocesan agencies are most frequently called Catholic Charities; other names used include Bureau or Conference of Catholic Charities, Catholic Social Welfare Bureau, and Diocesan Bureau of Social Service. The changing social and economic status of the parish, the various attempts to apply case work service to institutions and child-placing agencies, and a desire to supplement the work of volunteer agencies were conspicuous factors in the development of diocesan-wide programs. These were organized first in the children's and family fields. More recently they have included recreational and settlement work and protective care. Four dioceses have health and hospital divisions. In most instances the diocesan agencies were established after an intensive study of the charitable resources and the needs of the area. They were organized to correlate the services of isolated agencies, to develop specialized agencies to meet unfilled needs, to improve standards of work, and to promote better financial support and allocation of funds. The preliminary studies frequently revealed that Catholic agencies were not making sufficient use of community resources for the care of their people. They pointed out the importance of selecting for intensive care certain problems that were not dealt with adequately by public or private community agencies and those with which the organization of the Church is peculiarly fitted to deal.

Diocesan programs are built upon the leadership and encouragement of the bishop; they are a cooperative and systematized service, participated in by all diocesan charitable agencies and institutions under both clerical and lay direction; they have a unified system of raising money; they require a trained personnel, usually under the direction of a priest. Their aims are improved standards and better integration of services. The content of their programs varies. In many dioceses intake and discharge services for all child-caring agencies are given them by the central offices. In others, the individual institutions provide it for themselves. All diocesan agencies carry on child welfare services; about two-thirds do family work, about one-fourth have protective care programs, and a slightly smaller proportion have recreational or settlement programs. Central office staff members through their case work service, counsel and cooperation with pastors and parish workers, and educational work with volunteers strengthen the relationships between parishes and central office. The resources of the latter are not designed to relieve the parishes of responsibility. The trend is increasingly to develop parish resources, in money and service, and to supplement both when the case work service indicates the necessity. Nearly all diocesan agencies are members of local community chests where these are organized. Others are supported by annual appeals throughout the diocese.

National Agencies. The organization of two agencies, both national in scope, has markedly influenced the development of Catholic charities in the United States. The first of these, the National Conference of Catholic Charities, was organized in 1910. Meeting at first biennially and then annually, it has held 15 meetings. The proceedings are source books on the developmental trends, in organization and policies, of Catholic charities. In 1920 it organized a Sisters' Conference, which has brought the Sisters engaged in charitable work into closer contact with other related activities. The Conference publishes a periodical, the *Catholic Charities Review.* Specially appointed committees have studied and published a set of standards for Catholic child-caring homes, family service in diocesan agencies, and summer camps, and a study of settlements is to be completed and published in 1930.

Catholic Social Work

In 1920 the National Catholic Welfare Conference was formed by the hierarchy of the United States. The Department of Social Action maintains a staff whose service—for surveys, special studies, and conferences—is available to dioceses on request. Its publications include articles, pamphlets, and books on subjects of interest in the fields of Catholic social work and industrial relations. It organized the Catholic Conference on Industrial Problems, which holds one annual and several regional meetings yearly. The Department of Social Action carries on an intensive educational program on the teachings of the Church concerning social justice and industrial relations.

Family Welfare Work under Catholic auspices is carried on directly by pastors, or by societies such as the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the Ladies of Charity, and so forth. In dioceses where a centralized agency for family welfare service has been organized its purpose is to supplement the resources of the parishes both in service and material aid. In parishes where no organization exists the responsibility of caring for the poor rests on the pastor. In rural areas and small urban parishes this method of care prevails in general. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul is an organization in the Church devoted to the service of the poor. It functions through its parish "conferences"—small units in which its members give personal and discriminating service to any one appealing to them. The first conference was established in this country in 1845. The Society has at present a membership of approximately 18,200 laymen, enrolled in 1,450 parish conferences, mainly in the larger cities. In addition to relief and family service, the Society visits hospitals and prisons, and conducts summer camps and convalescent homes for both children and adults. It organized the first child-placing society under Catholic auspices in the country. *A Program for Family Service in Diocesan Agencies,* published in 1928 by a Committee on Standards of Family Case Work in Diocesan Agencies of the National Conference of Catholic Charities, is based on an intensive field study of five diocesan family agencies. The report of the Committee contains information on the place of charity in the Church, methods of maintaining standards of case work, staff organization, records and record keeping, and participation in movements for the prevention of family disintegration.

Child Welfare and Protection. Catholic child-caring homes at present number 588 and care for 81,000 children. For the physically and mentally defective there are 34 Catholic homes which care for and educate 6,800 children. Within the last 10 years practically all newly built institutions have been on the cottage plan, and many of the older institutions have modified their congregate buildings into small group units. *A Program for Catholic Child-Caring Homes,* published in 1923 by the Committee on Standards of the Sisters Conference of the National Conference of Catholic Charities, describes the general principles of administration for child-caring homes, the type of social inquiry that should be made before admission, during the stay of the child in the institution, and after discharge. The recommendation is emphatic that no children should be accepted for care whose own "homes are normal and happy or when they can be made so by financial assistance or efficient family welfare work."

Placing out in free homes has been a function of Catholic institutions for over 60 years. The number of institutions which now follow this practice is decreasing, as better standards and resources for institutional care and child placing are evolving. The development of facilities for intake service, more flexible programs for temporary institutional and boarding care, and more extensive after-care are reducing the number of children placed in free homes.

Particularly where central diocesan agencies have been organized, service for children is being planned with special reference to their specific requirements. The increase of suitable foster home or boarding care for anemic,

problem, or retarded children, or children with other recognized needs, has been greatly accelerated through the leadership and resources of the diocesan charity bureaus. In 1897 the Catholic Home Bureau of New York was established by the Society of St. Vincent de Paul for the purposes of finding suitable homes for Catholic children eligible for adoption. Other agencies of this type under lay auspices have since been established and the diocesan agencies now carry on an extensive child-caring service. The most recently developed program in this field is that of the Catholic Daughters of America.

For delinquent, wayward, and incorrigible children there are 54 Catholic institutions caring for approximately 9,000 boys and girls. Lay organizations, such as the Catholic Big Brothers and Big Sisters, are organized in many dioceses, and where these do not exist, and supervisory service is not adequately organized by the court itself, the bishop appoints a priest or requests a lay organization to arrange for the supervision of Catholic children coming to the attention of courts. In certain dioceses protective care service for boys has been organized under the Holy Name Society. This service is on a volunteer basis. In Chicago, Detroit, New York, Pittsburgh, and other places lay organizations of women are doing protective work for girls. The National Conference of Catholic Charities in 1929 appointed a committee on protective care which will report in 1930. A temporary report was given at the meeting of the Conference in 1929. It indicates that there is a wide variety of organizations and standards of service, but a measureable trend toward the development of a case work program under trained leadership.

Recreation and Character-Building Service for young boys is carried on by the Knights of Columbus under the organization Columbian Squires. It has 72 local units in 28 states and an individual membership of 4,700. Similar activities for girls are developed locally by councils of the Catholic Daughters of America, Daughters of Isabella, and the National Council of Catholic Women, which operate girls' clubs, summer homes, recreational centers, and so forth. Many local women's clubs without national affiliations do likewise. They also operate homes for young employed girls and women, and room registries. There are 199 boarding homes for young women under Catholic auspices, and room registries are maintained in 34 cities. Practically all of the former carry on educational and recreational activities. The religious orders also maintain boarding homes in many cities.

There are about 1,200 Boy Scout troops under Catholic auspices, and a Catholic Committee on Scouting has been organized in cooperation with the Boy Scouts of America. The Catholic Boys' Brigade, established by the Catholic Protective Society in 1917, had 130,000 boys enrolled in 1929. The hierarchy of the United States has endorsed the program of the Girl Scouts, and in all dioceses scout troops have been organized in the Catholic schools and churches. In most instances the leader of these troops is a Catholic. At the national headquarters there is an adviser who may be consulted on all problems relating to Catholic organization and promotion of scouting.

The Catholic settlement movement is interested primarily in providing wholesome recreation for Catholic children where this does not exist, and in giving religious instruction to children who are not attending parochial schools. In 1928 the National Conference of Catholic Charities appointed a committee to study the subject of Catholic settlements. It will report in 1930. There are approximately 100 agencies in this country carrying on settlement activities for Catholic children. Some of these are in connection with day nurseries and other institutions. There are 43 settlements separately organized, which in 1929 carried on activities for approximately 19,000 adults and 17,000 children. Seventeen of these are under religious management and 15 under lay management; one has both. In 30 settlements trained workers are employed.

Miscellaneous Activities. The Catholic Rural Life Bureau of the National Catholic Welfare Conference carries on an information service for organizations in rural parishes. It holds an annual conference. Religious vacation schools were held under its auspices in 1929, and 85 schools were conducted in 20 missionary dioceses in the South and Southwest, employing 300 teachers and enrolling 5,600 pupils for a month of intensive religious education, including incidental recreational and handicraft activities. The Bureau is also promoting the organization of parish credit unions, and publishes a monthly bulletin, *Catholic Rural Life.*

Service to newly arrived immigrants is organized chiefly under local diocesan auspices. There are many lay organizations participating in this service, and religious orders, particularly of women, are carrying it on in a few cities. The Bureau of Civic Education of the National Catholic Welfare Conference has published pamphlets on the rights and duties of American citizens which have been translated into 14 languages. The National Catholic Welfare Conference maintains a Bureau of Immigration which furnishes advice, information, and service to immigrants at Ellis Island and at El Paso. In Boston and Philadelphia the local diocesan agency renders similar service. The Conference Bureau carries on information service and correspondence with foreign centers, and a follow-up program is organized through the Catholic agencies in the various dioceses. In Cleveland and Newark the diocesan units of the National Council of Catholic Women carry on this latter service.

Catholic homes for aged men and women number 156. Approximately one-third of them accept patients as free charges; the remainder accept them on full or partial payments. Most of the free homes are conducted by the Little Sisters of the Poor. Several other religious orders also conduct homes for the aged, both on a free and pay basis.

In nine dioceses there are 11 institutions for colored children caring for an average of about 1,100 children. In the larger cities individual parishes have several types of organized charitable recreation and educational services for the colored.

There are 2,400 Indian children under the care of 19 institutions which have been established in 14 dioceses; and in addition, 6,400 Catholic Indian children in mission day schools conducted in 154 mission centers. A total of 200 priests, 450 Sisters, and 60 Brothers are giving their services in these institutions.

There are approximately 100 Catholic day nurseries, caring for 25,000 children. These are conducted under both lay and religious auspices. Summer homes and camps are operated under the auspices of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul, the local diocesan councils of the National Council of Catholic Women, the Catholic Daughters of America, and other local agencies. Approximately 60 were maintained in 1929. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul conducts day outings and camps for women and children. The diocesan agencies also carry on this service.

In the larger urban centers there are institutions for homeless men and for homeless women and children. In seven dioceses and archdioceses there are homes for working boys with a capacity of about 1,200 boys. They are operated in most instances by the clergy or Christian Brothers. The Society of St. Vincent de Paul has done more to develop service and visitation to prisoners and aid to prisoners' families than any other Catholic agency. It organized the American Society for Visiting Catholic Prisoners in Philadelphia in 1883. All councils of the Society carry on work of this kind.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Training for social work is becoming increasingly important in Catholic agencies. The diocesan agencies require professional training for their staff members who are engaged in family, children's, and protective work. Professional schools under Catholic auspices have been established as follows: National Catholic School of Social Service;

Loyola School of Sociology; Fordham School of Social Service; and Boy Guidance Department, School of Education, University of Nôtre Dame, and a school for social work in St. Louis at St. Louis University. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK and YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS—KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS.

Developments and Events, 1929. Apart from the usual national conferences and several important benefactions for the promotion of different forms of Catholic social work, the most significant developments or events of the year were the following: The Catholic Welfare Conference in Illinois was organized by representatives of the five dioceses in that state; the Department of Sociology of Nôtre Dame University established a course to train college men for probation service; the school for social work was organized in St. Louis at St. Louis University; the National Board of Daughters of Isabella adopted a plan to assist the Sisters of Charity in their national project in behalf of crippled children; a Catholic Recreation Commission was organized in Louisville to promote recreation and athletic activities in the parochial schools during recess periods and after school hours; construction was begun on a new diocesan home for children in Cheyenne, Wyo., to cost $200,000; and the Maryknoll Sisters opened a home for Oriental children in Seattle.

Studies in this field, carried on during the year, include the following: A study of 100 child-caring institutions under the auspices of a special committee of the National Conference of Catholic Charities and the Commonwealth Fund; a study of protective care agencies in selected dioceses, under the auspices of the Committee on Protective Care of the National Conference of Catholic Charities; a study of family desertion by a special committee of the National Conference of Catholic Charities; a study of the New York Catholic Protectory, under the auspices of the Board of Managers of the Protectory, by the Department of Social Action, National Catholic Welfare Conference; a survey of the Diocese of Omaha by John O'Grady and of the Diocese of Louisville by John A. Lapp; and a nation-wide study of the activities of students in American Catholic institutions of higher learning, in the interest of the movement known as Catholic Action, by the seminarians of the Catholic Students' Mission Crusade at St. Mary's Mission House, Techny, Ill.

CONSULT: Kerby, Wm. J.: *The Social Mission of Charity*, 1921; Ryan, John A.: "Charity and Charities," in the *Catholic Encyclopedia;* Cooley, Edwin J.: *Probation and Delinquency*, 1927; O'Grady, John: *Introduction to Social Work*, 1928, and *The Catholic Church and the Destitute*, 1929; National Catholic Welfare Conference: *Study Club Outlines on Social Service*, 1926, *The Labor Problem —What it is and how to solve it*, 1921, *The Boy Problem*, 1924, *The Church and Rural Problems*, 1925, *Girls' Welfare*, 1925, *Health Education*, 1926, *Women and Industry*, 1927, *Immigration*, 1927, *The National Catholic Welfare Conference Social Action's Department Half-inch Book Shelf on the Labor Problem*, 1925, *Health Education Bibliography for Teachers' Use*, 1928, *Foods and Nutrition*, 1928, and *Health thru the School Day*, 1928; National Council of Catholic Women: *Study of the Housing of Employed Women and Girls*, 1925; *Directory of Boarding Homes for Young Women*, 1929; Furfey, Paul H.: *Social Problems of Childhood*, 1929; Lapp, John A.: *Justice First*, 1928; Ryan and Husslein: *Church and Labor*, 1920; Cooper, John M.: *Play Fair* (Catholic Education Press), 1923; and the *Official Catholic Year Book*, 1928.

ROSE J. MCHUGH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 580.

CHARACTER EDUCATION. As part of their theory that everyone should be able to read the Bible, churches established the first schools in America. After the Revolution, however, scientific discoveries, religious toleration, and the growth of democracy shifted the educational emphasis. Public funds were rarely granted to church schools. The separation of church and state eliminated religious teaching from the public schools and completed their secularization.

Since 1913, however, a marked interest in character education has appeared, traceable to several factors: the inability of the church to hold adolescents; the belief by many persons that juvenile delinquency has been increasing; the recognition that the traditional school subjects do not equip pupils to meet moral problems; increased knowledge of the psychology of personality; and attempts to measure character and personality traits. In 1929 there were 22 states which required moral education in elementary public schools.[1] The National Education Association and the Religious Education Association, through their publications and conventions, have stimulated interest and research in this field.

In 1914–1915 the Character Education Institute of Washington, D. C., aroused widespread interest by a contest for a children's morality code. The award of $5,000 was given to President William J. Hutchins of Berea College. The successful code has become the basis for direct character teaching in many schools. In 1922 a second award of $20,000 for the best plan for character education was given to Professor Edwin D. Starbuck, of the University of Iowa, and his associates. This plan is now widely used. Following the award, Professor Starbuck organized the Institute of Character Research at the University of Iowa. That body has since issued studies of world citizenship, deception, religious radicalism, and a *Guide to Literature for Character Training.* Under the auspices of the Character Education Inquiry at Teachers College, Columbia University, between 1924 and 1929, Hugh H. Hartshorne and Mark A. May made a detailed study of deception in children. This study was made under a grant from the Institute of Social and Religious Research. The first national conference on character education in schools was called in New York City, in 1928, by the National Child Welfare Association and Teachers College.

In addition to the research organizations mentioned, several agencies have developed for direct character education work with children. See listings (in Part II of this volume) of the National Child Welfare Association, Inc., Pathfinders of America, Knights of King Arthur, Ladies of Avalon, and Yeomen of King Arthur. These agencies have what they hold to be "common sense" programs. By outsiders, however, these programs have often been criticized as at variance with scientific findings.

Many public school systems, including those of Los Angeles, Denver, and Boston, now have well-established courses of character education. One type is "direct character education," in which a specified period is set aside for study of a given trait, such as honesty. "Indirect character education" consists in organizing the entire school program so as to give the child practice in character development. The latter type is gaining ground. Another approach is through individual counselling with children who show character defects. Mental hygiene programs and the work of visiting teachers are closely related to this field.

CONSULT: Cavan, Ruth Shonle: "Character Education in Public Schools," in *Religious Education*, November, 1927; Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior: *Character Education* (Bulletin No. 7), 1926 (includes bibliography); Charters, W. W.: *The Teaching of Ideals*, 1927; Germane and Germane: *Character Education*, 1929; and Hartshorne and May: *Studies in the Nature of Character—Studies in Deceit*, 1928, and *Studies in Service and Self-Control*, 1929.

RUTH SHONLE CAVAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 581.

CHARITABLE FOUNDATIONS. *See* FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.

CHARITABLE TRANSPORTATION. *See* TRANSPORTATION OF CLIENTS.

[1] California, Idaho, Indiana, Kentucky, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Mississippi, New Mexico, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, and Wisconsin.

CHARITIES ENDORSEMENT. *See* ENDORSEMENT OF SOCIAL AGENCIES.

CHARITIES, STATE AGENCIES. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES.

CHARITY DEPARTMENTS OF CITIES OR COUNTIES. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES.

CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

CHILD ACCOUNTING. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH is a term which covers all scientific study of any stage or aspect of child development or the inter-relationships of two or more aspects. The physical and the mental aspects of child development with their many subdivisions have up to the present time received the greatest amount of attention from scientists; in the newer field of research—the social behavior of young children—techniques are only now being devised and publication is just beginning.

A survey of different lines of research being carried on in the field of child development was made in 1927 for the National Research Council. At that time 425 persons with the rank of professor or research assistant were reported to be engaged upon projects in this field. Of these research workers 24 per cent were engaged on problems of anatomy and physical growth; 26 per cent on the relationship between health or disease and child development; 18 per cent on problems of nutrition, diet, and metabolism; 20 per cent on problems of mental development and behavior other than intelligence measurement and mental hygiene; 21 per cent on behavior and habit problems, personality traits and personality adjustment, emotional balance, and general mental hygiene; and smaller percentages were studying intelligence and its measurement, educational problems, the home and family influences, heredity, endocrinological factors, the relationship between mental and physical conditions, and so forth. This summary gives some idea of the range of present-day research in child development and also indicates the general distribution of emphasis. What it does not so specifically show to the lay reader is the way in which activities such as these lay the foundation for improvements in methods of child care, whether considered from the standpoint of health, education, or social adjustment, and thus directly influence related fields of social work. The connection is recognized, however, and gratefully acknowledged by all those who have received professional training for any of these fields.

History and Present Status. The interest of leaders in philosophy and education has been turned to child development for more than 2,000 years. One needs only to mention Plato in the ancient world, Comenius in the Middle Ages, and Locke, Froebel, John Stuart Mill, Pestalozzi, and many others down to John Dewey, to be convinced of the interest displayed by thinkers. The actual recording of observations of individual children has been less frequent. There are a few well-known examples of it by distinguished men such as Preyer and Darwin. Not, however, until shortly before 1900 was any attempt made to interest educated parents in keeping records of the development of their babies. Millicent Shinn then persuaded a small group of college trained mothers to keep such records, and Miss Shinn's own study of her niece during her first year, which she incorporated into her *Biography of a Baby*, is still a classic description.

One reason for the lack of scientific study of young children was the fact that babies were to be found, for the most part, only in private family homes and could not easily be brought together in groups for purposes of research. This difficulty was to a degree overcome by the development of nursery schools. Indeed one of the earliest of such schools in this country was organized by the Bureau of Educational Experiments

of New York City in 1919 for the express purpose of studying child development through observation and expert testing of individuals in this group, and then of building an educational program upon the basis of this scientific study. Some two years later, when Bird Baldwin, of the University of Iowa, succeeded in gathering together daily a group of young children for the purpose of research in experimental psychology, he called his group not a nursery school but a laboratory, to indicate more clearly its primary function. At about the same time, the Merrill-Palmer School of Detroit established a nursery school to serve as a center of research and training in child care. *See* NURSERY SCHOOLS.

Meanwhile, independent of these experiments, people generally were beginning to realize more clearly than ever before the far reaching significance of the experiences of early childhood. Various influences were instrumental in awakening this realization. Genetic psychology, education, psychiatry, mental hygiene, and finally psychoanalysis had all stressed the strong and permanent influence of the early years of life. The urgent need for more scientific knowledge of this period and for better educational treatment of it had become apparent. This necessitated a demand for the cooperation of parents, and once more directed the attention of scientists to the nursery school as a place where, of necessity, educators and parents worked in close cooperation. Interest in this type of preschool education spread rapidly. Kindergartens recognized in the nursery school a preliminary stage. Psychology saw the chance for experimental study; nutrition and pediatrics found a new approach to the food problems and medical aspects of normal young childhood; home economics stressed child care as a course in homemaking. The angles of attack were so many, and the amount of research required so great, that only a university was in any measure prepared to establish such work. Although any well-organized university had on its staff the various experts necessary for a well-rounded project, the establishment of additional coordination was needed and new research is an expensive undertaking requiring special funds. The Laura Spelman Rockefeller Foundation saw the possibility of establishing valuable centers in universities by furnishing the needed funds, and to date has established or financed centers for research in child development at the following universities: Columbia, Minnesota, Iowa, Cornell, California, and Yale. The same Foundation has established the Washington Child Research Center, with which several government departments and private agencies cooperate.

There are now a large number of centers in the United States which are carrying on some phase of research in child development. They are listed in the *Twenty-Eighth Year Book* of the National Society for the Study of Education (1929). It is possible here to mention only a few of the most highly developed and best known of these centers. In the University of Iowa, as already indicated, experimental psychology has been the chief interest. Significant contributions have also been made to parent education through the affiliation of the University with the Iowa State Department of Education. The University of Minnesota has a large, well-organized center under the direction of psychologists. Cooperation with other departments of the University, notably the Department of Anthropometry, has been stressed and extension courses in parent education have been given through the extension department of the University. Columbia University has a department which has been distinguished for its policy of conducting research and of organizing cooperation among the university faculties. It has investigated and published studies of special problems in the psychology of young childhood; in medicine, physical growth, and nutrition; in education; in the social psychology of young childhood; and in parent education. In the field of parent education Columbia University has cooperated with the Child Study Association of America and

with the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. In Cornell University research in child development was begun in connection with home economics and as a phase of preparation for homemaking. Cornell has also done work in psychology and in the behavior of young children, and has carried on parent education through its university extension division. California is the most recent of this group of centers connected with large universities. Its staff represents psychological training. The department is as yet so new and so much in the position of feeling its way that one cannot say where the stress of its work will fall.

Each of these centers has established and conducted its own nursery school and has used the nursery school both in research and in parent education. Each center tends to develop more than one kind of work. The types most frequently represented are: the education of young children in the nursery school, research in medicine, psychology, social behavior, mental hygiene, the clinical treatment of children, and social work; finally, the training of teachers and administrators. Not all these forms of work are equally well developed in any one center, but every prominent center represents more than one type.

The various conferences and other events in which workers in the field of child development were particularly interested during the year are reported in the articles on PARENT EDUCATION, PARENT TEACHER MOVEMENT, and NURSERY SCHOOLS.

CONSULT: National Society for the Study of Education: *Year Book*, 1929—*Pre-school and Parent Education* (Public School Publishing Company); National Research Council, Committee on Child Development: *Child Development Abstracts and Bibliography*, (1927 to date); American Psychological Association: *Psychological Abstracts*—section on Childhood and Adolescence (particularly 1927 to date).

HELEN T. WOOLLEY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 581.

CHILD GUIDANCE. The term "child guidance," which was applied originally both to visiting teacher service and to the work of psychiatric clinics for children, is now more often limited in its application to the activities of the clinics. In a few school systems, however, psychiatric clinics function through a staff of visiting teachers, and in such places the visiting teacher work is still called child guidance. *See* VISITING TEACHERS, and PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

CHILD HYGIENE is a term applied broadly to all activities for promoting the health of children from the beginning of the prenatal period to the end of adolescence. Its characteristics are: that it deals with an age group instead of being a specialized activity; it is consecutive in nature throughout childhood; it places its reliance upon preventive and educational methods; and it involves a combination of individual and community support. For subdivisions of the general field given separate treatment in the Year Book, *see* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE, SCHOOL HYGIENE, NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN, MOUTH HYGIENE, HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS, DIPHTHERIA PREVENTION, and CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. This article deals only with activities, public and private, which concern the field as a whole or more than one of its subdivisions.

As an organized governmental effort, child hygiene had its inception in this country in 1908, when the first bureau of child hygiene was established by the municipal department of health in New York City. The next year Detroit followed suit, and in 1910 Buffalo, Nashville, and Los Angeles did the same. From that time on other municipalities fell rapidly into line.

The activities which these municipal bureaus or divisions of child hygiene now usually carry on include the provision of nursing, medical and dental services for pregnant women, infants, preschool and school-age children; in a few instances

special services are also provided for cardiac and orthopedic cases, or for children needing treatment by psychiatric clinics (child guidance).

Child hygiene activities in rural communities are usually confined to the services rendered by the nursing staffs of public agencies. These services were widely extended under the developments made possible by the Sheppard-Towner Act. In some localities nursing and medical conferences have been developed and serve admirably as a substitute for clinical services. In Los Angeles County, Calif., in 1929, conferences were held each week, or bimonthly, under the Bureau of Maternal and Child Hygiene of the County Health Department. Similar conferences form an important part of the child hygiene program in Rutherford County, Tenn., Clarke County, Ga., and Marion County, Ore. This method of staggering medical and nursing conferences seems to give satisfactory contacts at a minimum cost.

The school health program of county health departments rarely includes more than the routine nursing inspection, supplemented in some places by a complete medical examination by the health officer or a part-time physician. Where communities have been stimulated to give adequate support to county health departments, additional services for school children are provided. For example, in San Joaquin County, Calif., an automobile truck, with the equipment of a modern dentist's office and in charge of a full-time dentist, regularly visits the rural schools and conducts dental clinics.

Twenty-eight states have separate bureaus of child hygiene; in 11 states the field is combined with that of public health nursing. In Iowa the child health work has been conducted by the extension department of the University of Iowa, and in Colorado by the state department of education. In Nevada the work is nominally under the health department, but the activities are carried on outside the department. In all other states child hygiene is a function of the health department. The activities usually carried on may be grouped into four divisions: (a) maternal and prenatal work; (b) infant health and welfare; (c) preschool hygiene; (d) school hygiene. The prenatal work has been most effectively carried out in the larger cities and to some extent in other local health organizations by means of clinics and conferences. Thirty-four states conduct infant clinics of some kind. The preschool child also has been receiving an increasing amount of attention with the view to preparing him physically for school work. In school visits and in clinics defects are sought and efforts made to secure their correction. Pennsylvania has a staff of eight persons and a budget of $80,500 for this phase of its health work. School hygiene is a function of the state health department in 15 states. In the remaining 33 states it is allocated to the department of education in seven and to the local health authorities in 17. Fifteen states require medical inspection of school children. Many health agencies, state and local, now employ full-time dentists on their staffs.

Federal agencies which have carried on research in the child hygiene field are the United States Public Health Service, the Office of Education of the Department of the Interior, and the Children's Bureau of the Department of Labor, notably the last. The Children's Bureau was also responsible for the administration of the funds provided for work in the field of maternal and infant hygiene under the Sheppard-Towner Act. *See* Maternal and Infant Hygiene.

The child hygiene movement has also been stimulated by the activities and support of hundreds of privately financed national and local organizations engaged in public health work or public welfare generally, and by specialized agencies dealing with various phases of child health. The national agency most active in this field is the American Child Health, Association, which conducts research, furthers community organization for child health, promotes health education in the public schools, lends personnel to assist in local campaigns for clean and safe milk,

holds conferences and provides health literature for professional and lay groups. The Association is the chief sponsor of the National Child Health Day, which is celebrated each year on the first of May. At this time an attempt is made to focus public attention upon year-round child health programs which involve the cooperative activities of home, school, and community. Among other agencies active in recent years in the field of child hygiene have been the Commonwealth Fund with its child health program, the American Red Cross with its child health demonstration in Mansfield County, Ohio, in which the American Child Health Association participated, and the Milbank Memorial Fund in connection with the child health activities carried on as part of the health demonstration programs which it has financed in New York State and New York City. *See* HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS.

The most notable event of the year 1929 in the field of child hygiene was the calling by President Hoover of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. Two of the five sections into which the committees composing the conference membership are divided are to consider subjects in this field. For a list of the sections and subcommittees, and for other information about the White House Conference, see Part II of this volume.

The year was marked also by the establishment of a large foundation whose major activities as announced are of great significance to this field. The Children's Fund of Michigan was established on May 1, 1929, by Senator James Couzens, of Detroit, who gave $10,000,000 for the purpose of promoting "the health, welfare, happiness and development of the children of the State of Michigan primarily and elsewhere in the world." Among the activities in which the Fund is now engaged are the support of two county health demonstrations, the consolidation of eight "poor" counties into two units of four counties each for the purposes of health work, the supplying of nursing service in backward counties, prenatal nursing service in counties where the maternal mortality rate is high, instruction of mothers by women physicians, and a dental program in approximately 20 counties. In addition there is a research program which includes a study of dental caries at the University of Michigan. The trust agreement provides that about $700,000 shall be expended annually.

In New York City the establishment of the Heckscher Institute for Child Health has been made possible by a gift from August Heckscher. The Institute will provide medical examinations for children attending the Heckscher Foundation; cooperating hospitals will provide necessary medical treatment.

Other significant developments of the year in the field of child hygiene not especially covered elsewhere in this volume include the following: The Junior League of New Orleans concluded a two-year study of the causes and prevalence of rickets in that city; the Montana State Department of Health completed a study of trachoma among school children; a child health association was formed in Cleveland to correlate all activities in the interests of child health; and the Harrisburg Welfare Federation made a health survey with the aid of the American Child Health Association.

For literature relating to this field see references given under the subdivisions of the field which are mentioned at the beginning of this article.

S. JOSEPHINE BAKER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 581.

CHILD LABOR is considered to be the employment of children under conditions likely to interfere with their health, welfare, or education. Agencies working in this field have set themselves the twofold task of preventing children from leaving school to enter industry, and of providing adequate safeguards and supervision for young people going to work.

The federal census of 1920 showed 1,060,-

858 children from 10 to 15 years, and 1,712,648 children 16 and 17 years old gainfully employed. Not all these young workers are harmfully employed, and child labor activities have to do only with those who are working at too early an age, at night, for too long hours, in dangerous or injurious occupations, or under unsuitable conditions. Among public agencies concerned with child labor are the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, which studies and publishes reports on child employment; state departments of labor, education, or sometimes health, which administer child labor and attendance laws and in a few instances carry on research or initiate legislation; and the local authorities responsible for enforcement.

History and Present Status. By the middle of the nineteenth century several states had made legislative attempts to control the abuse of child labor. In 1890 the National Consumers' League was organized and began its campaign in the interests of child workers; soon after, the first state child labor committee was organized in Alabama. In 1902 the New York [State] Child Labor Committee was organized through the efforts originally of settlement workers in New York City.

The National Child Labor Committee was formed in 1904 and incorporated in 1907. It has stimulated the creation of state child labor committees, both temporary and permanent, of which three are now actively at work: the New York Child Labor Committee, the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee, and the Pennsylvania Public Education and Child Labor Association. The national committee investigated and made public the facts as to the employment of young children in coal mines, glass factories, and textile mills; and more recently with regard to children on the stage, country and agricultural workers, messengers, street vendors, and children employed in tenement home work. The National Consumers' League, which has long participated in all efforts to abolish child labor, is at present specially interested in extra compensation and minimum wage legislation for minors. In addition the Consumers' Leagues of Connecticut, New Jersey, Ohio, eastern Pennsylvania, Cincinnati, and a few others are actively engaged in promoting study and legislation.

Legislation has consistently been sought to remedy the evils of child labor. As early as 1902 the National Consumers' League published a standard child labor law (the statute of Massachusetts) as a guide for the drafting of adequate state laws; this was revised in succeeding years and in 1909 was replaced by the Uniform Child Labor Law, worked out by the Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws in cooperation with the National Child Labor Committee. This uniform law proposed a minimum working age of 14; specified the conditions under which children of 14 to 16 years could work; and regulated night work, weekly hours, and employment in dangerous occupations for males under 18 and females under 21.

For a time there were extensive efforts to secure federal legislation. In 1916 a law was passed forbidding the shipment in interstate commerce of goods in the production of which child labor was used; i.e., the employment of children under 16 in mines, under 14 in manufacturing establishments, or under 16 for more than 8 hours a day, 6 days and 48 hours a week, or at night. The law was enforced by the federal Children's Bureau. In 1918 this law was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court. A second law was included in the Revenue Act of 1919. It placed a tax upon the net profits of any establishment in which child labor (defined in the same way as before) was used. The law was administered by the Bureau of Internal Revenue. It was declared unconstitutional in 1922. In 1924 a constitutional amendment was passed by Congress giving the federal government power to legislate on child labor. This amendment has been ratified to date in only five of the necessary 36 states and by one house only in three others.

Child Labor

Gradual progress in state legislation has been reflected in the decreasing number of children employed. Excluding the large group in agricultural work, for which census figures are not entirely comparable, the percentage of children of 10 to 15 years, inclusive, gainfully employed decreased from 7.1 in 1900 to 3.3 in 1920, the rapid decrease being for those 10 to 13 years old. For all occupations including agriculture, the census of 1920 reported over 1,000,000 children between 10 and 15 years inclusive, or one out of every 12, gainfully employed, more than one-third being under 14 years. These figures do not include children under 10 years, of whom there are many thousands in industrialized agriculture, as well as in street trades, tenement home work, domestic service, and canneries. Although taken in January, when agricultural work is at its lowest ebb, the census of 1920 showed 647,309 children, or 61 per cent of the total, engaged in agriculture; manufacturing and mechanical industries employed 185,337 children; clerical occupations, 80,140; trade, 63,368; domestic and personal service, 54,006; transportation, 18,912; extraction of minerals, 7,191; and other occupations, 4,595. Further decreases in the number of children under 14 in industrial employment have probably resulted since 1920 from changes in state child labor and school attendance laws. Incomplete reports as to work permits, published by the federal Children's Bureau, suggest that there has not been so great a reduction for 14-year-old and 15-year-old children.

Fourteen years has come to be accepted by most states as the minimum age for industrial employment; in a few states the minimum is 15 or 16 years. Most states require the completion of a specified grade before children under 16 may legally leave school to work. School attendance is compulsory in every state up to 14 years, in the majority of cases up to 15 or 16 years, and in a few until 18; but in some states the period of attendance is very short. In more than half the states there are continuation schools for employed children under 16 or 18 years, attendance usually being compulsory. Limitation of working hours for children under 16 is almost universal, the majority of state laws fixing an 8-hour day and 48-hour week; four states are above and perhaps 12 below this standard. Night work is restricted in most states for children under 16, and in some states under 18 years. Prohibitions against employing children under 16 years in dangerous trades are making headway, although minors between 16 and 18 years have little protection except as to night messenger work. Seven states now require extra compensation to be paid by the employer to children injured.

Developments and Events, 1929. One new public agency was established in this field—a Bureau for Women and Children in the New Jersey Department of Labor. The National Child Labor Committee held its annual conference in San Francisco in June on the subject of migratory child workers, and observed the twenty-fifth anniversary of its founding by a two-day conference in New York in December. The New York Child Labor Committee sponsored three regional conferences. The federal Children's Bureau had five studies in progress relating respectively to workmen's compensation laws as they affect injured minors; the employment histories of minors attending continuation schools in Milwaukee; child labor in New Jersey; children in fruit and vegetable canneries; and the work histories of minors of subnormal mentality. The National Child Labor Committee, in cooperation with local agencies, published reports of investigations of child workers in Oklahoma, two Connecticut towns, and the Arkansas Valley of Colorado, and began a study of the administration of the Ohio child labor and compulsory school attendance laws. The Massachusetts Child Labor Committee undertook a study of industrial accidents to minors. The New York State Department of Labor inaugurated a study of double compensation awards to injured minors; a study of child

labor in the cotton fields was being made by the State Bureau of Child Welfare of New Mexico; and the United States Office of Education included compulsory attendance and child labor laws in a general secondary school survey. The Maryland Department of Labor and Statistics published studies of the Mentally and Educationally Retarded Child Laborer; Berry and Vegetable Pickers in Maryland Fields; and Child Labor in Vegetable Canneries in Maryland.

Legislation, 1929. The legislative season, with 44 legislatures in regular session, saw the introduction of 123 bills in 37 states directly or indirectly relating to child labor, but the majority of these were defeated. Among the few legislative advances made were an entire revision of the child labor law of Missouri (S. 469); and an increase in the educational requirement for work permits in Illinois (S. 244) from the sixth to completion of the eighth grade, and in Maryland (Ch. 491) from the fifth grade to completion of the elementary course; also the creation of a commission in Massachusetts (Ch. 49) to consider raising child labor standards. California (Ch. 187) amended its continuation school law and also (Ch. 546) remedied a defect in the minimum age law by specifically including children under school age in the prohibitions. New Jersey, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, Texas, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, and Utah also passed laws affecting child labor or school attendance in some respects. Bills reducing hours of work, raising educational requirements, awarding extra compensation to minors injured in illegal employment, and on other related subjects were defeated in 21 states. The federal child labor amendment was considered but not ratified by the following states: Colorado, Connecticut, Kansas, Nebraska, Nevada, New York, Oregon, and Utah.

CONSULT: Abbott, Edith: "A Study of the Early History of Child Labor in America," in *American Journal of Sociology*, July, 1908; Loughran, Miriam E.: *Historical Development of Child Labor Legislation in the United States* (Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.), 1921; Fuller, Raymond G.: *The Meaning of Child Labor*, 1922; Johnsen, Julia E., compiler. *Selected Articles on Child Labor*, 1925 (a handbook for debaters); National Child Labor Committee: *Child Labor Facts* (an analysis by states, revised with bibliography for each state), 1930, *The Doctor Looks at Child Labor*, 1929, and *Child Labor Selected Bibliography*, 1920–1927; and Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Children in Agriculture*, 1929, *Child Workers on City Streets*, 1929, *Child Labor in New Jersey* (Part I, Employment of School Children), 1929, and *State Laws and Local Ordinances Regulating the Street Work of Children*, 1929.

WILEY H. SWIFT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 581.

CHILD MARRIAGE. *See* MARRIAGE LAWS.

CHILD PROTECTION is a specialized service in behalf of children suffering from cruelty or abuse; or whose physical, mental, or moral welfare is endangered through the neglect of their parents or custodians; or whose rights or welfare are violated or threatened. This service is rendered by societies for the prevention of cruelty to children, humane societies dealing with both animals and children, protective departments attached to other private or public agencies, and independent protective associations or children's aid societies. The children who are taken in care by such agencies are chiefly those who are suffering from cruelty, physical, medical, or moral neglect, desertion, nonsupport, or abandonment; children who have defects of mind or body and are not receiving the special care they need on that account, or who are victims of exploitation or of violations of chastity; and also children who present the special problems connected with birth out of wedlock.

History and Present Status. The first humane legislation in history was the Martin Act in England (1822) which was designed to pro-

tect cattle. For the purpose of securing enforcement of this law, the Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was organized two years later. In 1866 the first American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Animals was established in New York City, and the interest aroused in officials of this society by their successful prosecution of the offender against a cruelly abused girl, Mary Ellen, and the rescue of the latter with the consequent discovery of other children in need of protection, resulted in the organization of the first American Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children in New York City in 1874. Other similar societies soon sprang into existence, while humane societies already organized to protect animals expanded their work to include child protection. The work of such agencies was legalistic in character, emphasizing rescue work and the punishment of offenders, and depending almost entirely upon police methods. The majority of agents were duly constituted officers of the law and wore a police badge. Massachusetts was the first to advance beyond this position. In 1907 the police badge was discarded for the most part and case work methods were first applied. By the first of July, 1908, three college graduates who had studied psychology and two women to supervise in girl cases and to act as supervisors were employed. The efficiency of these agents began to be measured, not so much by the number of court cases and successful prosecutions, but by the number of rehabilitations brought about by means of which children remained in their own homes.

Although the rank and file of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children have persisted in the traditional manner, a few have followed the example of Massachusetts. The outstanding characteristics of their work are: the employment of trained workers; use of the court as a last resort, and even then not so much for punitive purposes as for an aid in treatment; use of medical and psychiatric clinics; preparation of social investigations and histories for the use of courts, as in cases of adoption and non-support; team-work with other agencies; use of the sympathetic approach as against the "big stick" method; the effort to see beyond parental culpability, and to recognize ignorance and incompetency as causes; the promotion of prevention of neglect by combined efforts to improve community conditions and by social legislation.

The number of societies for the prevention of cruelty to children is decreasing, and it is doubtful whether any new ones will be formed. In 1922 there were 57 such societies, while in 1929 there were but 48. There has been a slight increase, however, in the number of humane societies which combine the work for children with that for animals, the number in 1922 being 307 and in 1929, 319. In the majority of these societies the work for children is negligible as compared with that for animals.

Other private agencies active in the field of child protection are the juvenile or girls' protective associations now to be found in a number of cities. In general these agencies concern themselves primarily with the discovery and correction of community conditions that make for juvenile delinquency, but they also prosecute in cases of individual children who have been abused or neglected. The Division of Protective Measures of the American Social Hygiene Association promotes activities of this type. Agencies which deal with unmarried mothers often have to protect children of such mothers—and not infrequently the mothers themselves—from cruelty or exploitation. *See* Girls' Protective Work and Children Born Out of Wedlock.

In still another group are the associations of Big Brothers and Big Sisters, now federated in a national organization, which endeavor by means of individual and personal effort to keep boys and girls from becoming delinquent. Through public schools, social settlements, juvenile courts, and other social agencies children are referred to them who seem likely to become delinquent unless something is done. Treatment consists of

careful study of the individual child, selection of an adult fitted to act as his friend and mentor and willing to accept the responsibility, the introduction of child and adult, and thereafter such friendly services and efforts to improve the child's environment and attitude as the adult can contribute. Ideally this adult, although he serves as a volunteer, is given some training and must carry on his work under the supervision of a case worker. In February, 1930, there were 14,072 adults acting as big brothers or big sisters to 43,186 children.

Public agencies for child protection include the federal Children's Bureau, whose services in this field have consisted of research, the calling of conferences, and the formulation of standards of child welfare; the state children's bureaus or departments of child welfare, which are, in most states, directly charged with the responsibility of protecting children against neglect or cruelty, with particular attention, often, to illegitimate children; county or municipal boards of child welfare or boards of children's guardians; probation officers attached to county or city juvenile courts, who, in some places, carry on a good deal of preventive and protective work; and finally the police force, both men and women but especially the latter, who, in degrees which depend upon the amount of social work training which they possess, not only protect children from the more obvious forms of abuse or exploitation but also combat those forces in the community which are more subtly injurious to the morals of youth *See* Policewomen.

Leaders in the field of child protection now generally agree that such work should become a public function and be made a part of a state-wide program with county units under state supervision or control. The best examples of such public organizations are those of Minnesota, North Carolina, Missouri, and Alabama. All the state child welfare commissions have studied the laws relating to child protection and have included in their recommendations suggestions for combining activities in this field with those of other public agencies. *See* Children's Code Commissions.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year Wyoming abolished its State Commission of Child and Animal Protection, and gave to the Wyoming State Board of Charities and Reform the responsibility for enforcing laws for the protection of children; the Rochester Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children considerably extended its child placing activities because the children's court adopted the plan of placing neglected children in foster homes instead of committing them to institutions; and the Board of Children's Guardians of St. Louis employed a new officer to undertake preventive work.

Legislation, 1929. New York (Ch. 684), carnal abuse of girls between 10 and 16 years of age by a male person 18 years old or over made a felony on second offense; Vermont (No. 51), age of consent raised from 14 to 16; Wisconsin (Ch. 439), jurisdiction of juvenile court in neglect cases raised from 16 to 18; North Dakota (Ch. 113), juvenile court given continuing jurisdiction over neglect cases until 21. Maine (Ch. 64) provides that complaints in cases of neglect may be signed only by specified public officials or members of municipal boards or by three citizens; 10 days' notice must be given before hearing.

Consult: Carstens, C. C.: "The Development of Social Work for Child Protection," in *Annals of the American Academy*, November, 1921, and "Child Welfare Work Since the White House Conference," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1927; Child Welfare League of America: *Detailed Standards of Children's Aid Organizations*, 1929; Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Standards of Child Welfare*, 1919; Coleman, Sydney H.: *Humane Society Leaders in America*, 1924; and McCrea, Roswell C.: *The Humane Movement*, 1910.

Ray S. Hubbard

For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 581.

CHILD STUDY. *See* Parent Education.

CHILD WELFARE. Used broadly, the term "child welfare" applies to all activities which promote the well-being of children. Thus, most state commissions for the study and revision of child welfare laws have dealt with all legislation which relates to children, although the statutes which concern handicapped children have usually been given first attention. *See* Children's Code Commissions. In its narrower meaning, child welfare is usually restricted, in the United States, to work for this latter group —those who are handicapped socially, physically, mentally, or emotionally. The classes of children most frequently specified by laws are the dependent, destitute, delinquent, neglected, incorrigible, wayward, truant, illegitimate, mentally defective or feeble-minded, crippled, physically handicapped, or children in need of special care. In this article these classes are combined into five major groups—the dependent, the neglected, the delinquent, the physically handicapped, and the mentally defective.

Dependent Children are those who have lost one or both parents, or whose parents or guardians are unable to support them, or have surrendered them legally or informally to a social agency, public or private. Care may be provided for such children in their own homes, either by general family welfare agencies or relief societies, or by agencies which administer mothers' aid laws, or by other agencies, public or private, which give aid to families in their own homes. In addition, day nurseries provide day care for the young children of certain employed mothers. *See* Family Welfare Societies; Relief Societies; Public Agencies for Needy Families; Public Welfare, State Agencies; Public Welfare, Local Agencies; Dependent and Neglected Children; Mothers' Aid; Business Men's Service Clubs; and Day Nurseries.

Dependent children may be cared for outside of their homes in specially designed institutions, or by organizations (and occasionally by child-caring institutions also) which provide foster homes where their wards can be placed with compensation or for free care or for adoption. *See* Dependent and Neglected Children and Adoption. For the care and placement of children of unmarried mothers *see* Children Born Out of Wedlock. In most states the juvenile court has jurisdiction in the commitment of dependent children. Elsewhere state or local boards have this power. State boards usually are given authority to license and supervise child-caring institutions and agencies. *See* Juvenile Courts and Probation; Domestic Relations Courts; Public Welfare, State Agencies; and Public Welfare, Local Agencies.

Neglected Children are those who are suffering from abuse or whose parents or guardians, although able to do so, fail to give them the proper care. Such agencies as juvenile courts, societies for the prevention of cruelty to children, humane societies, juvenile protective associations, and children's aid societies assume responsibility not only for the care of such children, but also for the prosecution of any adults who are directly responsible for the neglect. *See* Child Protection. Progressive organizations in this field, instead of immediately removing the child from the home, seek to improve the home. In some such cases the parent is placed on probation. *See* Adult Probation. If the child has to be removed from an unfit home he is treated as a dependent child.

Delinquent Children are those who have violated some public law or ordinance, or are considered to be in moral danger because of their behavior. Modern procedure centers upon the child and the causes of the behavior rather than upon the behavior itself. In all but two states juvenile courts have been created with jurisdiction over juvenile delinquents. *See* Juvenile Courts and Probation and Psychiatric Clinics for Children. If it seems best for the children, the court may place them on probation or commit them to institutions. *See* Delinquent

Boys, Institution Care, and Delinquent Girls, Institution Care. Occasionally delinquent children are placed out in private family homes. *See* Delinquent Children, Foster Home Care.

Detention Homes. Pending final disposition by a juvenile court, children may be held in a detention home controlled either by the court or by some private agency, or may be placed in family homes for temporary care. *See* Detention Homes; Delinquent Children, Foster Home Care, and Dependent and Neglected Children.

Preventive Work for Children. This term applies to organized activities for the prevention of dependency, neglect, or delinquency among children. Basic to sound progress in all such activities is scientific research into the various aspects of child life at different periods, supplemented by efforts to make the findings of science of practical use to parents. *See* Child Development Research and Parent Education. What are in effect laboratories for research and demonstration in the field of child development are provided by most nursery schools and by many of the so-called "progressive schools." *See* Nursery Schools and Progressive Education. The information obtained through these different means is of great value to workers in the field of child welfare.

Many public schools now offer special services which fall definitely within the field of preventive work. *See* Visiting Teachers, Psychiatric Clinics for Children, and Compulsory Education. Agencies in these fields concern themselves with children as individuals, and in varying degrees use case work methods in order to eliminate personal, family, and community maladjustments before their influence becomes harmful. *See* Social Case Work. Vocational guidance workers, both within and outside the public school system, try to keep children from entering ill-advised or dangerous occupations by assisting them in selecting and preparing for a vocation, and in some instances by carrying on placement work. *See* Vocational Guidance. Other organizations, usually public, serve as juvenile employment agencies only. *See* Employment Agencies. Child labor committees rely chiefly on publicity and legislative reform to safeguard the educational rights of children and afford them protection, physical and moral, during their first years in gainful employment. *See* Child Labor.

Agencies which function more directly in the field of prevention are those like the juvenile protective associations and the social hygiene societies. The former specialize in the discovery and elimination of community conditions which make wrong-doing easy or attractive. The latter promote sex education and other preventive measures. *See* Child Protection, Social Hygiene, and Policewomen. Two related activities carried on by the Big Brother and Big Sister organizations serve boys and girls brought before juvenile courts and others known to need a wise friend by providing them with the companionship and guidance of socially minded adults, usually serving as volunteers under the supervision of trained workers. *See* Child Protection. For other agencies which are basically preventive in character *see* Child Hygiene and Recreation and the related articles to which they refer; also Character Education.

Physically Handicapped Children. For the care of children with physical handicaps and for methods of preventing the development of handicaps *see* the Blind; Blindness, Prevention of; the Deaf; the Hard of Hearing; Crippled Children; Speech Disorders; Tuberculosis; Heart Disease; School Hygiene; Nutrition Work for Children; Mouth Hygiene, and Maternal and Infant Hygiene.

Mentally Defective Children. For the care of mentally defective children *see* Mental Deficiency.

Public Systems of Child Care and Child Protection. For federal activities in the child welfare field *see* Child Welfare Activi-

TIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. For state, county, or municipal activities *see* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES, and PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES.

Child Welfare Standards. Standards of child welfare have been formulated from time to time in different fields of child care by different agencies or individuals. The most complete and authoritative statement of such standards was published in 1919 by the President's Conference on Child Welfare, held under the auspices of the federal Children's Bureau. It is expected that these standards will be restated and amplified in 1930 by the group participating in the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. See its listing in Part II.

Training for Child Welfare Work and National Agencies in the Field. For a discussion of training in this field *see* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK and the articles on the several types of child welfare work mentioned earlier in this article. For the national agencies which operate in the different fields *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 581. Agencies of influence in the field as a whole are: Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor; Child Welfare League of America; the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection; and the International Institute for the Protection of Childhood.

MABEL B. ELLIS

CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. Effective federal interest in the special problems of child life dates from the creation of the Children's Bureau by act of Congress in 1912, after years of effort on the part of many groups. By the law approved April 9, 1912, the Bureau was directed to investigate and report "upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people." Scientific research with popular education and demonstration have been its chief functions, though under the terms of two special acts it has also cooperated with the states in certain administrative activities.

Under the direction of Julia C. Lathrop, the first chief of the Bureau, who served until 1921, and that of her successor, Grace Abbott, over 200 investigations have been made in 45 states, the District of Columbia, and Porto Rico, and the results presented in 195 bulletins. Besides research in the field, the Bureau has compiled and analyzed in tabular form the laws relating to child labor, juvenile courts, illegitimacy, sex offenses against children, mothers' pensions, interstate placement of children, and adoption; and has actively cooperated with child welfare and children's code commissions in the work of revising state laws. Baby-week campaigns, the use of a Child-Welfare Special in rural regions, a nation-wide celebration of Children's Year to protect children in wartime, exhibits, radio talks, motion pictures, and popular pamphlets on the care and training of young children have been some of the methods used in popular education. One very important method of work has been through conferences with public and private child-caring agencies at which standards have been worked out to serve as goals for local endeavor.

The investigations of the Children's Bureau fall into three main groups: maternal and infant welfare, including the health and training of the preschool child; the care of special groups of children handicapped by physical or mental defects or through delinquency, dependency, or neglect; and problems relating to the child in industry. Field studies to determine the causes of the existing high rate of infant mortality were carried on in both industrial and rural communities, and these, particularly in rural communities, gave special attention to the sort of care provided for mothers during pregnancy and at childbirth. A statistical study made by the Bureau also showed an excessively high maternal mortality. As a result of these studies efforts were made to secure the application of the principle of federal aid as a basis of national and state cooperation in reducing the high death rate of mothers and

babies. The Sheppard-Towner Act for the promotion of the welfare and hygiene of maternity and infancy, which became law on November 23, 1921, authorized an annual appropriation of $1,240,000 for a five-year period, later extended by two years, to be distributed to the states according to a definite principle. A special board was created to approve or disapprove state plans, but the national administration of the act was placed in the Children's Bureau. The great stimulus to state work and the remarkable results accomplished are described in the article on MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE. A detailed account of the administration of the act, which ceased to operate on June 30, 1929, is given in the annual reports made by the Children's Bureau and the proceedings of the annual conferences of state directors. Bills to continue the purpose of the Sheppard-Towner Act in slightly different form were pending in Congress at the end of 1929. In addition to the maternity and infancy act, the Children's Bureau had administrative responsibility for the first federal child labor law, from September, 1917, to June, 1918, when the law was declared unconstitutional by the United States Supreme Court. A report on the administration of that act was printed as Publication No. 78 in the Bureau's series.

Other investigations include studies of juvenile delinquency and juvenile and domestic relations courts, illegitimacy as a problem in child welfare, social aspects of mental defect, methods of administering mothers' pensions laws, and the care of dependent children. As the result of conferences held in 1921–1923, standards governing juvenile court work were formulated and published, and a plan for the uniform recording of juvenile court statistics was worked out, under which 65 courts reported statistics of delinquency during the year 1928. In the field of child labor the most important studies relate to industrial home work of children, children in street trades, child labor and the work of mothers in oyster and shrimp canning communities on the Gulf Coast, child labor in coal-mining areas, and accidents to working children; in addition to a series of studies of rural child labor in sugar-beet and tobacco fields, at cotton picking, in truck gardening in the East, in the corn and wheat belt, and in fruit and hop-picking on the Pacific Coast. A study of vocational guidance and placement in 12 cities was made in cooperation with the Junior Division of the United States Employment Service.

During 1929 the Bureau made an investigation of every registered maternal death during the calendar years 1927 and 1928 in 13 states. The collection of data for a study of the causes of neo-natal morbidity and mortality, made in cooperation with the Yale School of Medicine, was continued, as was also a statistical analysis of the material collected in the studies of rickets in New Haven and Porto Rico. Field work was completed on a survey of juvenile delinquency in Maine and on a study of the activities and functions of the Children's Bureau of the Minnesota State Board of Control, undertaken at the request of the State Board. Progress was also made in the general survey of the work of state departments or boards concerned with handicapped children in 10 representative states. Of especial interest among the publications issued was the first report on juvenile court statistics under the new plan of uniform reporting. The industrial investigations covered home and community conditions affecting children of railroad maintenance-of-way employes, and workmen's compensation laws as they affect injured minors. The Bureau's specialist in recreation devoted much time during the year to the problem of recreation among rural children in cooperation with the extension divisions of the federal and state departments of agriculture, which are promoting a broader program for the "4-H Clubs" for farm boys and girls. In February, 1929, a three-day conference, limited to representatives of state departments of public welfare, was held at the Children's Bureau, attended by delegates from 32 states. The entire time of the sessions was devoted to discussions of dependency and child protection.

Child Welfare Activities of the Federal Government

The outstanding achievement of the Children's Bureau has been in furnishing a unified approach to the problems of child life. Its work has contributed very greatly to the marked advances in legislation and in standards in child welfare made in the United States in the last two decades. When established in 1912 it was the first public agency of the sort to be created. Among the governments which have since followed the example of the United States are Argentina, Belgium, Brazil, Chile, Czechoslovakia, Germany, Italy, Mexico, Peru, Russia, and Yugo-Slavia. Child welfare has also become an international interest in the organization in the League of Nations of an Advisory Commission for the Protection and Welfare of Children and Young People, on which the Chief of the Children's Bureau serves in a consultative capacity as the American member. In the Pan-American countries an American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood has been organized with headquarters in Montevideo. To its support Congress in 1928 authorized an annual subvention of $2,000. The assistant to the Chief of the Children's Bureau has been designated as the United States member of the Council of the Institute.

Besides the Children's Bureau several other governmental agencies are concerned with special phases of child welfare. Indian children in the United States are under the direct care of the Bureau of Indian Affairs. To remedy in part the deplorable conditions revealed by the report of the Institute for Government Research, published in 1928, a more adequate dietary and clothing budget for children in Indian schools has been established with the cooperation of experts from the Bureau of Home Economics, the Children's Bureau, and the Public Health Service. An emergency appropriation to put this minimum budget into effect immediately was recommended to Congress by President Hoover in December, 1929.

Another group of children are under the jurisdiction of the United States Department of Justice. These are child offenders against federal laws. Such children are brought before federal courts in which none of the safeguards of juvenile court procedure is available. A study made by the Children's Bureau of the methods of dealing with children who have violated federal laws (Publication No. 103, 1922) revealed the great need of better methods of caring for this group. The development of a definite system by which specified types of federal cases involving children would be referred to state courts—one of the recommendations of the Children's Bureau report—has not yet come before Congress as a legislative proposal.

The oldest of the federal bureaus concerned with problems of child health is the United States Public Health Service, which had its beginning in the Marine Hospital Service, created in 1798. The main emphasis of its work has been on the improvement of general public health, but special studies have covered sanitary conditions of schools in certain localities, mental and physical examinations of school children, growth and physical development, vision, and mouth hygiene. The 1929 investigations included a study of the relation between the mental and physical status of children in two counties of Illinois and a statistical analysis of the data available on Negro infant mortality. The Bureau of Home Economics of the Agriculture Department, in its general studies of the problems of the home, has issued leaflets on food and clothing for young children.

The Office of Education, known until recently as the Bureau of Education, came into existence in 1867. For many years its main interest was in the organization and management of schools and school systems and methods of teaching. In recent years, however, attention has been given to the health of school children and to the handling of problem children within the school system. Some of the bulletins of the Bureau since 1912 have related to the following subjects: physical growth and school progress, health of the school child, eyesight of school children, open air schools, truant problems and parental schools, vocational guidance and

the public schools, the visiting teacher, public school classes for crippled children, education of the deaf, and diagnosis and treatment of young school failures. Recent issues of the *Biennial Survey of Education* have included statistics of schools and classes for the blind and deaf and the feeble-minded, and of industrial schools for delinquents. Publications issued in 1929 include a digest of legislation for the education of crippled children, and a report on physical defects of school children. The principle of federal aid has been applied also in the field of education in the grants made to the states since 1917 for the promotion of vocational education, administered by the federal Board for Vocational Education.

An important event of the year 1929 in federal child welfare was the appointment by President Hoover of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection. Under the chairmanship of the Secretary of the Interior, Ray Lyman Wilbur, four general sections, with 17 committees, embracing a total membership of about 700 specialists, are gathering data on the present condition of the health and well-being of children in the United States, in preparation for a conference which is to be held late in 1930. See the listing of the Conference in Part II. A nation-wide study of juvenile delinquency is to be made under the joint auspices of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement and the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

CONSULT: Lists of publications, furnished upon request, of the United States Children's Bureau, the Public Health Service, and the Office of Education. The most important of these publications are listed in this volume under the topics which they concern.

LAURA A. THOMPSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 581.

CHILD WELFARE COMMISSIONS OR LEGISLATION. *See* CHILDREN'S CODE COMMISSIONS.

CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK add largely to the work of all health and social agencies which deal with dependent, neglected, and delinquent children. Their death rate in infancy is higher than that of other babies because illegitimate infants are more likely to be separated early from their mothers. The social significance of birth out of wedlock is far reaching and is reflected in the factors which bring so many of these children to the care of private and public agencies. The fundamental right to normal home life with their parents is denied many such children. For economic and social reasons they are often moved from one caretaker to another. Efforts to conceal their parentage and status occasion emotional conflict; feelings of insecurity and inferiority develop, which sometimes lead to behavior difficulties. The youth and low earning capacity of most of the mothers and the fact that comparatively few fathers contribute to the support of the child, even if they have acknowledged paternity, increase the difficulties of this situation.

These social and health handicaps of children born out of wedlock are well recognized, but because of the general incompleteness of birth registration, and the greater incompleteness—for obvious reasons—in the registration of illegitimate births, the total number of children in the group can be stated only approximately. The Bureau of the Census shows 63,942 illegitimate births in 1928, but that figure includes no information from California, Massachusetts, New Mexico, Nevada, South Dakota, and Texas.

History and Present Status. The first organized efforts for the protection of children born out of wedlock—the foundling homes of the Middle Ages—date from an era when the lives of many infants were in jeopardy. Such homes were succeeded by almshouses in England and the American colonies. Later, because of dissatisfaction over the indiscriminate grouping in almshouses, church groups established maternity homes to provide medical care and social assistance

for both mothers and children. Social case work has demonstrated the value of individualized treatment, and now much of the earlier institutional program is carried on by agencies in the fields of family and child welfare. Laws and ordinances governing early separation of mother and baby, state supervision of institutions and agencies, better laws and machinery for establishing paternal responsibility, and extension of the benefits of private and public funds for relief to include unmarried mothers have all contributed to the success of the movement.

The United States Children's Bureau has promoted interest in these measures through research, publications, and assistance to local and national groups. Local organizations in this field include not only maternity homes and other social agencies, but also local "conferences on illegitimacy." These are representative bodies including most or all of the case working agencies in a community which deal with the problem of unmarried mothers and their children. Such conferences exist in eight cities. They are united in an intercity conference and have sponsored standardization of case work and other projects. *The Standards for Child Welfare* published by the United States Children's Bureau in 1919 includes a special reference to children born out of wedlock. Standards of legal protection were formulated at conferences called in 1920 by the Bureau at the request of the Inter-City Conference on Illegitimacy; and a uniform illegitimacy act, drafted by the National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws at the request of the Children's Bureau, was approved by that conference in 1922 and recommended to the states for adoption. Seven states have adopted it with some modification: New Mexico, North Dakota, South Dakota, Nevada, Iowa, Wyoming, and Wisconsin.

Developments and Events, 1929. Reports received from some 20 cities suggest the trends of the year in this field. Improved case work and extended service were reported in six of these cities. In a few cases maternity homes began the practice of using other agencies for their needed case work and in four cities such homes were closed or had decreased service during the year. A home in another city arranged for outside care of its infected patients, and in still another a cottage was opened for the care of mothers with nursing babies. In other places foster homes were much more widely used during the year for this purpose. The reports indicate also that paternal responsibility was established in a greater number of cases than previously, and that more babies were kept with their mothers. Steps toward the organization of conferences on illegitimacy were taken in Cincinnati, and carried to completion in Louisville and in the State of Connecticut. Two such conference groups formulated statements of standards: Philadelphia, with reference to policies for maternity homes; and Cleveland, with reference to prospective adoptive parents. This latter statement is used by the probate court and by social agencies. A state-wide study of adoption was made during the year in Ohio by the Child Care Bureau of the State Department of Public Welfare. The Child Welfare League of America studied the illegitimacy problem in Cincinnati and Hamilton County, under the auspices of the Community Chest and the Council of Social Agencies, and special attention was given to children born out of wedlock in a study of child welfare in Pittsburgh and Allegheny County, made for the Federation of Social Agencies. Some six other cities report surveys or research projects of less general significance.

Legislation, 1929. Provisions in the new Children's Code of Wisconsin (Ch. 439) constitute the outstanding legislative achievement of the year in service to children born out of wedlock. Following the Minnesota precedent, Wisconsin now declares it to be the duty of the state to protect children born out of wedlock and to safeguard their rights. The State Board of Control and the county children's boards are charged with this re-

sponsibility. Changes in the law concerning the establishment of paternity provide for the issuing of summons instead of warrant; for settlements between parents, and for private hearings. The child is substituted for the mother as complainant if the mother has died or is insane or cannot be found; the mother's testimony, taken at the preliminary hearing, may be accepted as evidence in event of her death; and improved provisions are made for support by the father. On these points and others the law agrees in substance with the uniform illegitimacy act. In addition the code contains provisions governing the importation and exportation of children, and provision for maternity aid. Maternity hospitals—which now report to the State Board of Control all admissions of unmarried, pregnant women and unmarried mothers—are prohibited from placing out children or assisting in such placement.

New Jersey passed a law (Ch. 153) providing that a child born out of wedlock is entitled to support and education from his father and mother equally, and that either parent or a custodian of the child may institute proceedings to enforce support. This law substitutes the more modern term, children born out of wedlock, for bastards. Michigan (No. 263) provided for a bond from the father to insure payment of an order for support. The law governing maternity hospitals was amended (No. 289) to transfer these duties from the State Board of Correction and Charities to the State Welfare Commission. Wyoming enacted a law (Ch. 45) embodying the principles of the uniform illegitimacy act. In New York the law for New York City concerning children born out of wedlock was amended (Ch. 434) to conform to the state-wide act. Pennsylvania enacted a law (No. 473) providing for licensing and inspection of maternity homes by the State Department of Welfare. Utah (Ch. 8) repealed its law of 1919 providing for a home for fallen women. Bills relating to the support and education of children born out of wedlock failed of passage in Minnesota, Ohio, West Virginia, Missouri, and Connecticut. An adoption law failed of passage in Washington.

CONSULT: Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Analysis and Tabular Summary of State Laws Relating to Illegitimacy in the United States in Effect January 1, 1928,* and the text of selected laws (Chart No. 16); Donahue, A. Madorah: *Children of Illegitimate Birth Whose Mothers Have Kept Their Custody* (United States Children's Bureau Publication No. 190), 1929; Lundberg, Emma O.: *Children of Illegitimate Birth and Measures for Their Protection* (United States Children's Bureau Publication No. 166—includes a list of the 14 Children's Bureau's publications up to that time relating to illegitimacy), 1926; Kenworthy, Marion E.: *The Mental Hygiene Aspects of Illegitimacy* (National Committee for Mental Hygiene), 1921; Barrett, Robert S.: *Care of the Unmarried Mother* (a handbook for institutions and agencies dealing with problems of illegitimacy), 1929; Parker, Ida R.: *A Follow-up Study of 500 Illegitimacy Applications* (Boston Research Bureau on Social Case Work), 1924.

A. MADORAH DONAHUE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CHILDREN OF UNMARRIED MOTHERS. *See* CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK.

CHILDREN'S AID SOCIETIES. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU, FEDERAL. *See* CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

CHILDREN'S BUREAUS. For the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, *see* CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT. For state, county or municipal children's bureaus, *see* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES; PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES; and MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE. For privately supported children's bureaus of varying types, *see* DEPENDENT AND NEG-

LECTED CHILDREN; and DELINQUENT CHILDREN, FOSTER HOME CARE.

CHILDREN'S CODE COMMISSIONS. Approximately twenty-five years ago the confusion and inadequacy of the legislative enactments relating to children began to be the subject of discussion among social workers in the United States. The Children's Act adopted by the British Parliament in 1908, and popularly known as the "Children's Charter," while less comprehensive than its name implies, served to call attention to the importance of a correlated approach to the problems of childhood. The White House Conference of 1909 also emphasized this approach. The first official expression of this developing opinion came in Ohio when the legislature in 1911 directed the governor to appoint "a commission to revise, consolidate, and suggest amendments to the statute laws of the state of Ohio which pertain to children." The commission was directed by the statute to unify laws relating to illegitimate, defective, neglected, dependent, and delinquent children and suggest such amendments and additions as seemed to them "best calculated to bring the law of this state [Ohio] into harmony with the best thought on this subject." (Ohio laws, 1911, p. 123.) The legislation recommended by the commission after two years of study was known in Ohio as the "Children's Code," and with some changes it was adopted by the legislature. The success of the Ohio Commission led to the creation of similar commissions in New Hampshire (1913), Missouri (1915), and Minnesota (1916). The last two were appointed by the state governors at the suggestion of social workers who had failed to get legislative approval for bills proposing the appointment of commissions. The governor of Minnesota directed the commission to "revise and codify the laws of the state relating to children," but as the report was to be submitted to the legislature when it convened in 1917, the commission considered only legislation affecting defective, dependent, and delinquent children and their needs. It decided not to recommend a "code," but submitted 43 bills, of which 35 became laws. One of its most important recommendations, and one approved by the legislature, provided for the centralization in a special division (known as the Children's Bureau) in the State Board of Control, of the administration of all state laws for the care and protection of children and the organization of county child welfare boards to cooperate with the state board in carrying out the laws. The machinery which the commission recommended provided for a more complete coordination of state and local administration than had previously been adopted by any state, and greatly influenced the development of a correlated state and county program elsewhere.

With the success of the Minnesota Commission, the commission form of organization for study and recommendation was generally accepted by social workers as the best method of obtaining a thoroughgoing revision of legislation and reorganization of the public social services for children, particularly those under state auspices. To date 34 states have created commissions,[1] and some have been active from their creation to the present time. In general these commissions have been appointed by the governor at the direction of the state legislature. In some states, as in Minnesota, the governor has without special legislation created a commission, and a few commissions have been organized without authorization by either the governor or the legislature. In the District of Columbia a committee to revise and codify the child welfare laws of the district was appointed by the Attorney

[1] Ohio, 1911; New Hampshire and Oregon, 1913; Missouri, 1915; Minnesota, 1916; Michigan and Montana, 1917; Delaware, Wisconsin, and Kansas, 1918; Nebraska, Indiana, South Dakota, Connecticut, Oklahoma, South Carolina, and Texas, 1919; Kentucky, New York, and Tennessee, 1920; North Dakota, Virginia, West Virginia, and Utah, 1921; Georgia and Maryland, 1922; Florida, Iowa, and Pennsylvania, 1923; Rhode Island, 1925; New Jersey, 1927; Illinois, Massachusetts, and Wyoming, 1929.

General of the United States in 1914, and by the Commissioners of the District of Columbia in 1920. In Illinois a committee was appointed by the Secretary of the Department of Public Welfare in 1920. In Wisconsin the Conference of Social Work took the leadership and organized a children's code committee in 1927 which obtained the introduction and enactment of a comprehensive bill two years later.

In general, child welfare commissions have received little or no funds from the state. The members of the commission have served without pay and the investigations have been financed by private funds locally raised, or assistance has been given by national organizations. The exceptions have been New York, where during a period of five years $52,000 was appropriated; and Connecticut, Pennsylvania, Nebraska, Indiana, Massachusetts, West Virginia, and several other states, where smaller amounts were appropriated. State commissions have, however, been assisted in their work by several national agencies. The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, since its organization in 1912, has supplied all the commissions with information as to the laws and the administrative practices in other states and the method of organization and recommendations of other commissions. The Bureau itself has conducted special studies in North and South Dakota, Georgia, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin at the request of the commissions in these states.

In 1915 a so-called National Committee for Standardizing State Laws was formed to assist states on request in the work of rewriting their laws and reorganizing their administrative practice in connection with the care of children. It was largely active through its chairman, C. C. Carstens, who reported to the Children's Section of the National Conference of Social Work in 1917. (*Proceedings*, 1917, p. 310.) The committee met in Milwaukee at the time of the conference in 1921 and recommended to the Russell Sage Foundation the establishment of the legislative service referred to above. While not disbanded, the committee has not functioned in recent years. The Russell Sage Foundation through its Child Helping Department assisted the commissions in a number of states, giving special aid in the investigation and preparation of the report of the Oregon Commission in 1918. ("Child Welfare Work in Oregon," by W. H. Slingerland in *Bulletin*, Extension Division, University of Oregon, July, 1918.) In 1924 the Foundation created a Department of Social Legislation which functioned from 1924 to 1925. William H. Hodson, director of the Department, gave much assistance in the preparation of the recommendations and adoption of the report of the Public Welfare Commission of the District of Columbia. From 1916 to 1920, the National Child Labor Committee gave special attention to the commission movement. It prepared the report for the Tennessee Commission in 1920, and in cooperation with unofficial state groups interested in obtaining the creation of commissions by the several legislatures, it published studies of child welfare and child welfare legislation in Kentucky (1919), North Carolina (1918), and Oklahoma (1918). Since its organization in 1920 the Child Welfare League of America has been interested in the work of the state commissions and has assisted several in a consultative capacity.

Developments and Events, 1929. Three new commissions were created during the year in Illinois, Massachusetts, and Maryland. The Illinois law (Laws, 1929, p. 780) authorized the governor to appoint a committee of specially qualified men and women representing the legislature, the state department of public welfare, and the public and private child welfare organizations throughout the state, who were directed to "conduct such studies of the legislation relating to child welfare and the operation thereof as may be necessary to revise and codify such legislation and determine its operation." The chairman of the committee is Henry P.

Chandler of Chicago and its subcommittees are on delinquency, dependency and neglect, defective and handicapped children, and health and education. The federal Children's Bureau cooperated in its work by supplying a digest of state laws and making several studies.

The Massachusetts law (Resolves, 1929, Ch. 12) provided for a commission of three ex officio members—the commissioners of public welfare and of mental diseases, and the deputy probation commissioner for the state—and two other members to be appointed by the governor. The commission is directed to investigate "laws relative to dependent, delinquent and neglected children, and children otherwise requiring special care." Theodore A. Lathrop, of Boston, is chairman of the commission and Emma O. Lundberg is acting as consultant. The United States Children's Bureau has undertaken the compilation of state laws on several subjects, and on request is supplying other material to the commission. On December 4 the commission filed a preliminary report asking that the commission be continued until December 30, 1930.

The Maryland law (Laws, 1929, p. 1430) provides for a commission of seven members which is directed to investigate and make recommendations to the governor regarding the care of the disadvantaged citizens of the state, the functioning of the state departments in other states, social problems and needs of Maryland, and related subjects. Harold E. Donnell is chairman.

The recommendations of the Children's Code Committee formed by the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work, embodied in a bill known as the "Wisconsin Children's Code," were submitted to the legislature in 1929. After many amendments the code was adopted. (Laws, 1929, Ch. 439.) A bill providing for a commission which had the support of social workers in Washington failed of passage by the legislature. Its provisions are referred to in the other articles of the Year Book on the topics covered.

CONSULT: Carstens, C. C.: "The Development of State Programs for Child Welfare," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1917, pp. 307–315; Clopper, E. N.: "The Development of the Children's Code," in the *Annals of the American Academy*, November, 1921, pp. 154–159; Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *State Commissions for the Study and Revision of Child Welfare Laws*, Publication No. 131, 1924 (bibliography), and Annual Reports, 1924 to 1929. The latter give annual summaries of legislation, work, recommendations, and accomplishments of child welfare commissions.

GRACE ABBOTT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CHILDREN'S COURTS. *See* JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION.

CHILDREN'S FESTIVALS. *See* PLAY FESTIVALS.

CHILDREN'S GARDENS are areas cultivated by children for recreational and educational purposes. The first garden of this type in the United States was begun in 1891 by Henry Lincoln Clapp, head of the George Putnam School of Roxbury, Massachusetts. Mr. Clapp had been sent abroad the previous year by the Massachusetts Horticultural Society to make a study of school gardens in Europe, and his knowledge of developments in Germany, England, Belgium, France, and Switzerland helped to determine the policies of this movement in America.

Most of the children's gardens in this country have been operated under the auspices of the public schools. A few have been administered by city departments of recreation or by park boards, and a few by industrial concerns. In the early years of the movement settlements and other social agencies occasionally fostered garden enterprises. During the World War the real aims of the school garden movement were largely lost sight of in the pressure for food produc-

tion, but that phase has passed and the gardens are once more thought of as being primarily laboratories in the field of nature education. School gardens have had their most conspicuous development in New York, Boston, Baltimore, Washington, Atlanta, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Dayton, Louisville, St. Louis, Kansas City, Portland, Los Angeles, Fresno, and Lincoln. The School Garden Association of New York, which has about 10,000 members, is the largest organization in this field in the world. The Board of Education of New York City has 205 schools with gardens on their grounds, the largest number of school gardens reported for any city in the country; the Park Department supports seven gardens; the Brooklyn Botanic Garden, also under the city government, administers a large garden, and one is in operation in Manhattan under the auspices of the National Plant, Flower, and Fruit Guild. Conspicuous progress has recently been made in the South, particularly in Atlanta.

Vacant lot gardens have largely disappeared since the war. Home gardens have been most successful in Tulsa, Okla., where four special supervisors have been employed, but such gardens have not been as widely established as gardens located on school grounds.

CONSULT: Corbett, L. C.: *School Gardens* (Farmers Bulletin No. 218, United States Department of Agriculture, revised edition), 1922, reprint 1928; Greene, M. Louise: *Among School Gardens*, 1910; Reports of the School Garden Association of America; and issues of *Nature Garden Guide*, published by the School Garden Association of New York City. Information will also be found in the reports of boards of education in cities where school gardens are operated.

VAN EVRIE KILPATRICK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CHILDREN'S HOMES or INSTITUTIONS. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

CHRONIC DISEASES. For the purpose of this discussion chronic disease (excluding pulmonary tuberculosis and mental disease) may be defined as illness lasting a period of three months or more, which prevents the patient from following his accustomed daily routine and which necessitates medical or nursing care at home or in an institution. Patients with chronic diseases are sometimes grouped into three classes on the basis of their medical needs: patients who require medical care for diagnosis and treatment; those requiring chiefly skilled nursing care; and those requiring only custodial care.

Chronic physical disability is determined largely by disease of the heart and arteries, organic affections of the nervous system, cancer, non-tuberculous disease of the lungs, the various forms of rheumatism and Bright's disease, by diabetes mellitus, and other disturbances of the glands of internal secretion or of metabolism. Too often the term "incurable" is applied to these maladies. This is at times an unwarranted assumption, and it has a very depressing effect on the patient and checks every effort at rehabilitation.

With the progressive decrease in death rate from infectious diseases which has taken place in recent years, more and more persons survive middle life, to succumb at a more advanced age to disease obscure in origin and chronic in character. Today chronic diseases are responsible for one-half of all deaths.

Persons between their fiftieth and seventieth years who are disabled and infirm should be regarded as sick, not as suffering from old age. The term "senile," like the term "incurable," involves an assumption of inevitableness which leads these victims of disease to be regarded as useless derelicts, rather than as patients who need medical attention. Similarly there has been a tendency to confuse convalescent with chronic patients, owing probably to the fact that both often need prolonged institutional care; but their problems are quite different. *See* CONVALESCENT CARE.

In chronic disease, economic and social factors are fully as significant as medical ones. Even a poor family can ordinarily recover from the effect of an acute illness, but when disease is protracted, the cost of medical attendance, medicines, special food, and sick-room sundries becomes prohibitive. It makes itself felt especially when a wage-earner is ill, but the illness of a wife is serious also, for it involves unusual expenditures for the maintenance of the household. The life of every member of the family is in some way conditioned by the fact of such illness. A very heavy strain is placed on the varied human relationships comprised in the family. Because of all these factors the family frequently becomes disorganized and destitute. As a consequence social agencies are called on for relief and a tax is laid on community resources.

The individual suffering from chronic ailment is preeminently an institutional charge, but only very rarely have proper provisions been made for such cases. Probably not more than six well-organized hospitals for chronic diseases exist in this country. The best known ones are Montefiore Hospital for Chronic Diseases in New York City, and Robert Brigham Hospital, Boston. Owing to the lack of special institutions, homes for incurables, almshouses, city infirmaries, and homes for the aged and infirm harbor many chronic sick without being equipped to meet their medical needs. There is an urgent need for increasing the number of hospitals. They must be maintained by public funds, for the chronic sick cannot contribute much to their support. The situation is analogous to that of the tuberculous and the insane. For such of the chronic sick as can be cared for in their homes a visiting nursing service would be of great help. This is provided in many communities, but the demands of those acutely ill are so great that chronic cases are given secondary consideration and rarely receive adequate care. In many instances in which personal care alone is needed, this could be carried out by trained attendants, if they were closely supervised. Certain types of patients can be maintained in boarding homes. Here, too, some sort of public supervision would be essential.

Occupational therapy often serves to improve the morale of the patient, to help the development of certain muscles or to mobilize a diseased joint, to assist in rehabilitation by supplying prevocational training, or to make the patient economically productive through the production of useful articles. *See* Occupational Therapy. One of the chief difficulties experienced with these patients is that of transportation to and from work. In institutions in which there are many chronic invalids who are able to work it is important to organize an appropriate workshop within the institution. No such shops exist, however, so far as the author is aware.

The institutional needs of patients with chronic disease are gradually being recognized throughout the country. In a number of large cities new hospitals for chronic patients have been established or are being planned. Conspicuous are those in Cleveland and Boston. Moreover, homes for the aged and for the incurable, such as the Hebrew Home for Aged and Infirm in Baltimore, have here and there made better provisions for the medical care of their inmates. With growing attention paid to the chronically ill, more cases have been discovered. Most hopeful have been measures instituted in several cities to replace their almshouses or county infirmaries with well-staffed and equipped hospitals for chronic diseases. The first unit of such a municipal hospital in Cincinnati has just been opened. *See* County and City Homes.

Another type of activity for the chronically ill is the organization of friendly services which persons shut in by invalidism often so greatly need. Among the local agencies active in this field are hospital visiting committees, fruit and flower missions, and the like. The Shut-in Society, a national agency with six state branches, includes in its clientele cripples and the blind as well as

chronic invalids. Its branches lend wheel-chairs and other sick-room appliances, such as hot-water bags, rubber air cushions, and the like; write letters to the lonely, send them books, remember them at Christmas and other holidays, and conduct exchanges for the sale of articles made by their shut-in members. The International Order of King's Daughters and Sons does much work of a similar nature. *See* SOCIETIES FOR FRIENDLY SERVICES.

Studies in this field which were in progress during 1929 included the following: a census of the chronic sick in New York City, and a review of the institutional facilities for their care, undertaken by the Welfare Council of that city; and a similar study of the situation in Chicago, under the auspices of its Council of Social Agencies.

CONSULT: Boas and Michelson: *The Challenge of Chronic Disease*, 1929; and Boston Council of Social Agencies: *Report on Chronic Diseases in Boston*, 1927.

ERNST P. BOAS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CHURCH AND SOCIAL WORK. Religious organizations as factors in organized social work are discussed under CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK, JEWISH SOCIAL WORK, PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK, and MORMON SOCIAL WORK. The national agencies in each of these fields are shown in NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED (page 579), under the four headings here mentioned; and the activities of the several agencies are indicated in articles relating to them in NATIONAL AGENCIES (page 497).

CHURCH OF THE LATTER DAY SAINTS, SOCIAL WORK BY. *See* MORMON SOCIAL WORK.

CHURCH RECREATION has traveled a long road. Starting when recreation of any sort was considered ungodly, it came next to be looked upon with indifference, and then as "bait" to lure young people to the church. Only recently has it begun to take its rightful place in church programs as a necessary part of every well-rounded life. Churches are now coming to see wholesome recreation as part of their ministry. Church recreational activities are mainly social, and include parties, banquets, outings, and sometimes dramatics. Large city churches often have parish houses with ample facilities for recreation and athletic events. Very few directors of recreation are employed by individual churches, and as a rule leadership in that activity is an incidental function of the director of religious education. The Social Recreation Union holds an annual institute of one week for the training of workers in this field.

Local organization for promoting church recreation is very slightly developed. The Chicago Church Federation has an effective recreation committee, and in a few large cities the National Recreation Association is training church leaders. Several religious national offices, including those of the United Presbyterian, Christian, Methodist Episcopal, Methodist Episcopal South, Congregational, and Presbyterian Churches, have directors of young people's work who are largely concerned with recreation. The Mormon Church also has a well-developed recreation program. A significant fact is the great interest shown by these churches in summer camp conferences for young people—largely recreational in character. Incomplete statistics show that in 1929 over 150,000 young persons attended such camps.

CONSULT: Publications of Social Recreation Union and of its affiliated agency, Church Recreation Service; Richardson, N. E.: *Church at Play*, 1922, and Williams, Marguerita P.: *Sources of Information on Play and Recreation* (a bibliography), 1927, Section XXI.

LYNN ROHRBOUGH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CHURCH SOCIAL WORK. *See* CATHOLIC WORK, JEWISH SOCIAL WORK, MORMON SOCIAL WORK, and PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK.

CITY BOARDS OR DEPARTMENTS OF HEALTH. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH, LOCAL AGENCIES.

CITY DEPARTMENTS OF CHARITIES OR PUBLIC WELFARE. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES.

CITY HOMES. *See* COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING is the ordering of the physical elements of a city or a region so that each will best perform its function and all will be coordinated into a unit of the utmost efficiency, healthfulness, and agreeableness. This physical process is guided by a master plan best expressed by a map with descriptive text. A financial program or long-term budget for major improvements should accompany the physical plan.

History and Present Status. Although from the earliest times there have been plans for American cities which have left their imprint on the downtown sections, in most cases these plans have not been followed beyond the very limited areas for which they were made. The modern era dates from about 1900, and during its first decade city planning was largely influenced by the Burnham plan for the Chicago World's Fair. In the reports of this "city beautiful" decade the emphasis is on improving the appearance of cities, on removing undesirable features, and providing agreeable ones. Cities are urged to do away with the smoke, to remove poles, wires, billboards, and overhanging signs. More land for parks and playgrounds, especially water-front land, is recommended for purchase. Public buildings are to be grouped in spacious civic centers. Shade tree commissions are to be appointed. There is much discussion of vistas and much citing of European examples. Studies of population growth, of traffic movement, of trends in commerce and industry are not much in evidence. In the light of the present state of the art, with its exhaustive statistical studies, the early surveys are of the sampling or pathfinder variety, calculated to define and illustrate the problem, not to solve it.

Few if any of these early reports had any official standing. They were made for commercial organizations, civic associations, or citizens' committees. The first official plan commission in the United States was appointed by the city of Hartford in 1907 under the authority of a local ordinance. There were only 15 official city planning agencies in 1914. From then on each year brought a greater pressure on the city structure. The rush of people to the city had been marked from 1900 to 1910, and was even more marked from 1910 to 1920. In 1905 the city streets were not greatly burdened by the 78,000 motor cars then registered, but they began to be threatened in 1915 when the number of motors had jumped to 2,500,000, and they have broken down completely under the 25,500,000 cars of 1929. Getting the city masses about, and providing for their housing, schooling, and recreation, are now the chief concern of city and regional planning agencies.

Social and economic pressure and the persistent agitation of national agencies have accomplished much. Official city planning agencies increased from 15 in 1914 to 200 in 1922, and to 700 at the end of 1929. To this number should be added 16 official planning agencies for counties or regions and about 50 unofficial regional or city planning committees. Of the 21 cities in the United States having a population of 300,000 and over, all but one have planning commissions. Of the 48 cities in the United States with a population of between 100,000 and 300,000, all but seven have planning commissions.

Until 1916 there were two great divisions of the planning field. The first was concerned with circulation on the highway, the city

street, or by rail and rapid transit lines, and the second with the distribution of public lands, whether for open spaces or for public building purposes. The New York Zoning Ordinance, passed in 1916, brought into the planning field the regulation of the use of private land by the community for the community. Zones for residence, business, and industry have since been established in over 500 cities. State legislation authorizing appointment of planning commissions and defining their duties did not exist in 1907. Since then every state has written city planning or zoning or both into its organic law.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. If planning is not a profession, it is a composite of several professions. The opportunities for employment are either as general consultants or as engineers of local commissions. Up to 1930 most of the master plans were made by consultants and administered by local planning engineers under the general supervision of planning commissions. There are still hundreds of master plans to be made and administered, but of the 700 planning commissions now at work not more than 50 have appropriation enough to employ professional assistance. Until the work of the planning commission is rated at its full value by municipal authorities, young architects, landscape architects, and engineers will not be lured into this new field. There is, however, a growing demand which is not likely soon to be oversupplied by the yearly output of the professional schools. The first School of City Planning in the United States was established in 1929 at Harvard University. For some years, however, instruction in city planning has been given at the School of Landscape Architecture at Harvard, and excellent courses have been offered at other colleges and technical schools.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the first regional plan in America was completed for the metropolitan area surrounding the port of New York after a study of seven years at a cost of over $1,000,000. This was the gift of the Russell Sage Foundation to the New York region. The ten survey volumes and the two graphic plan volumes which together make up the complete Plan are great additions to the already considerable body of planning literature. At Radburn, N. J., on what was only farm land in 1928, there was finished during the year a complete unit—homes, parks, and business center—of the first town in the United States designed for the motor age. In the field of legislation California, Colorado, and North Dakota joined New York State in passing laws which give permanence and official standing to city plans.

CONSULT: Hubbard and Hubbard: *Our Cities, Today and Tomorrow,* 1929; Duffus, R. L.: *Mastering a Metropolis,* 1930; and the following volumes of *Regional Survey of New York and Its Environs* (Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs): Vol. 1, Haig and McCrea: *Major Economic Factors in Metropolitan Growth and Arrangement,* 1927, with supplementary studies 1 A (Chemical, Metal, Wood, Tobacco, and Printing Industries) and 1 B (Food, Clothing, and Textile Industries); Vol. 2, Adams, Thomas and others: *Population, Land Values and Government,* 1929; Vol. 3, Lewis and Goodrich: *Highway Traffic,* 1927; Vol. 4, Turner, D. L.: *Transit and Transportation,* 1928; Vol. 5, Hanmer, L. F., and others: *Public Recreation, 1928;* Vol. 7, Perry, Heydecker, Goodrich, Adams and others: *Neighborhood and Community Planning,* 1929; Vol. 8, Lewis, H. M., and others: *Physical Conditions and Public Services,* 1929.

FLAVEL SHURTLEFF

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CIVIC AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS. The word "civics," which was formerly applied solely to the study of civil government, now includes all activities of citizens in relation to the state and society. Similarly, only organizations which had to do with government in its political aspects were formerly regarded as civic organizations. Such bodies now concern themselves also with all that relates to constructive, intelli-

gent, and helpful participation in the work the government is doing. As the activities and functions of government have been growing in extent and application, civic organizations have expanded and developed. They now deal with problems of housing, crime and penal conditions, community organization in its various phases, employment problems, health, mental hygiene, the handicapped, recreation, the administration of justice, and sundry other phases of the social problems of the times.

Typical of civic organizations of the broadest type is the Civic Club of Pittsburgh. It initiated the playground movement in its city; also medical inspection in the public schools, community singing in public parks, open air schools and a legal aid society. It organized the Pittsburgh Juvenile Court, the local Child Labor Association, and the Associated Charities. The *Municipal Index* for 1929 lists 156 national agencies and 31 state leagues which serve municipalities in various ways. No complete list of local civic organizations has ever been prepared. The National Association of Civic Secretaries represents in its membership the more important civic bodies—those that are served by men and women devoting all, or practically all, of their time to the work.

Business organizations at one time dealt solely with problems of business, in the narrower meaning of that term. At present most organizations of that character deal with as wide a range of subjects as civic organizations. The Chamber of Commerce of the United States has a Department of Civic Development which aims to coordinate and develop such activities.

In his study entitled *Chicago*, published in 1929, Charles E. Merriam declares it to be his judgment that civic organizations in that city are recruited from, and largely supported by, the benevolently minded well-to-do persons of the middle classes. On many measures their lead is followed by the community, perhaps unconsciously. He finds several factors which prevent their more effective leadership. Among these are "the frequent lack of an aggressive attitude on public utility questions, on which their members are divided; the avoidance of, or relative indifference to, the interests of the labor group; their relatively weak representation among the nationalistic groups; their lack of technical intelligence in the scientific sense. Business interests are likely to look upon them as radical; labor interests as conservative; politicians as meddlers and cranks; graft interests as dangerous foes. Thus the civic organizations, while they are strong at many points, are weak at others, identified in most quarters with sincerity and zeal, but also with narrowness and class affiliation."

In the same connection Professor Merriam points out that admirable civic work has been done by many of the business organizations, particularly in the fields of public improvements, public welfare, and finance. But there are cases where the interests of these organizations do not coincide with those of the community. Hence they find themselves frequently involved in bitter and deplorable struggles with the mass of the people on questions of franchise, public ownership, strikes, schools, or other problems involving the respective rights of the many and the few. While these observations of Professor Merriam relate specifically to the Chicago situation, they apply also to practically every community in the country. There may be variation in details, but little or none in outlines and conditions.

No comprehensive study of the activities in this field has been made, and there is practically no literature devoted to it other than the scattered reports of local civic agencies.

CLINTON ROGERS WOODRUFF

For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CIVIL LIBERTIES. The term "civil liberties" is used in relation to the free exercise of rights set forth in the Constitution of the United States—freedom of speech, press,

and assemblage; the right of defendants to a fair trial; the equality of citizens before the law irrespective of race or religion; and the separation of Church and State. This article deals with organized efforts for the protection of those rights—particularly those relating to freedom of speech, freedom of the press, and freedom of assemblage.

From the standpoint of the agencies engaged in these organized activities, civil liberty involves the freedom of all propaganda from censorship in advance of publication or display, and freedom of such pronouncements from penalties. Specialized activities in the field are directed toward insuring equal rights for Negroes, freedom of teaching in schools and colleges, and the protection of the rights of aliens and other minorities.

History and Present Status. Only in recent years have continuous efforts been made by organized agencies to secure for all persons the civil liberties set forth in the fundamental law of the country. Earlier efforts were made only by the minorities whose rights were attacked. There was no general non-partisan organization for defense of these rights until the World War, when the National Civil Liberties Bureau was formed to oppose wartime prosecutions and to protect conscientious objectors. After the war the Bureau was expanded into the American Civil Liberties Union, composed now of some 6,000 members in different parts of the country, with local committees employing paid workers in the three centers where issues are most acute—California, Pennsylvania, and Massachusetts. Other organizations dealing with special aspects of the struggle are the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, the International Labor Defense, a communist-led working-class organization, and defense committees set up as need prompts by trade unions, organizations of aliens, and other minority bodies.

Of the infringements of civil liberties against which organizations in this field protest, nine out of ten involve rights which labor asserts in its contest with employers or with civil authorities. It is alleged that these rights have been menaced by restrictive legislation passed during and since the war, both federal and state, and by decisions of state and federal courts which have usually sustained such legislation. Included are the federal Espionage Act and the criminal syndicalism and sedition laws, and laws restricting the freedom of labor organizations. Protest is also made against the federal laws which forbid admission to the United States of radical aliens and provide for their deportation; against laws denying citizenship to alien radicals and conscientious objectors; against state laws in three states which forbid the teaching of evolution; against the laws in 15 states which require the Protestant version of the Bible to be read in the public schools; against laws subjecting motion pictures and the radio to a growing legal censorship, and against laws providing for compulsory military training in colleges and the so-called "voluntary" training in high schools. Objection is similarly made to the use of injunctions restricting the lawful acts of labor in time of strikes, to the action of police and sheriffs when, without lawful right, they break up meetings and picket-lines, act as censors, conduct searches without warrant, and administer the third degree; and finally to lynching and mob violence and the connivance of officers of the law in such outbursts, as a result of which those who are guilty generally go unpunished.

These acts of legislatures, courts, and civil authorities affecting chiefly strikers, Negroes, and communists, the American Civil Liberties Union combats in different ways. Test cases are carried to the highest courts; defense is organized; further legislation of the kind mentioned is opposed; free speech test meetings are held in places where assemblage has been unlawfully denied; and publicity is organized through pamphlets, the press, and public meetings of protest. Over 500 lawyers in all parts of the country cooperate, many rendering their services without charge.

Developments and Events, 1929. The number of complaints alleging violations of civil liberty that were reported to the Union during the year showed no decrease over previous years. There was a considerable increase in prosecutions of strikers and interference with lawful activities by communists, largely due to the increased militancy of the communist movement and its related trade unions. There were 228 prosecutions brought involving the issue of free speech—in addition to cases arising out of strikes, which numbered hundreds more. Some 20 sweeping injunctions were issued in strikes. State troops were called out in three strikes in the South, and 53 meetings were broken up by the police.

From the standpoint of the organizations at work in this field the events of the year 1929 showing progress were the following: (a) The decision of the Supreme Court of South Dakota voiding a law permitting the reading of the Bible in public schools; (b) the State Department's lifting of the ban on the admission of Count Karolyi; (c) the adoption by the Senate of an amendment taking from customs clerks the right to exclude foreign books which they regard as "obscene"; (d) the decision of a federal district judge in New York that membership in the Communist Party does not make an alien deportable; (e) the award by a jury in New York of $17,000 damages to Mme. Rosika Schwimmer for libel; (f) the investigation of alleged unlawful means used by law enforcement officials which was undertaken by the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement; (g) the organization of campaigns in Massachusetts against the censorship of books, plays, and meetings in Boston, and in Pennsylvania against the sedition law, against the violence of state and private police, and against the closed company town.

The events similarly regarded as hindering progress or causing a loss of ground previously gained were: (a) The decision of the United States Supreme Court denying citizenship to Mme. Rosika Schwimmer for refusing to bear arms; (b) the decision of the Minnesota Supreme Court sustaining a law which permitted judges to curb the press by injunction (to be appealed to the United States Supreme Court); (c) the Pennsylvania Supreme Court's approval of the sedition law, with the consequent imprisonment of the first three men sent to prison under these laws anywhere in the United States since 1924; (d) the revocation of citizenship of a communist for his beliefs (appealed); (e) the conviction of Mrs. Mary Ware Dennett for sending a sex pamphlet through the mails (appealed); (f) the conviction of five communists in California for displaying a red flag (appealed); (g) the defeat in the Pennsylvania legislature of a bill to abolish the coal and iron police; (h) the failure of the governor of California to act on the cases of Mooney and Billings, imprisoned since 1916 for a crime which practically all officials connected with their conviction now believe they did not commit; (i) the decision of the Massachusetts Supreme Court sustaining a conviction for criminal libel of Governor Fuller; (j) new prosecutions in Ohio, Illinois, and California under the criminal syndicalism and sedition laws; (k) the violence against strikers in North Carolina and Tennessee resulting in the killing of 7 strikers, the wounding of 24 others, the kidnapping and flogging of 7 and sentencing of 11 to prison, the prosecution of union members and sympathizers in connection with these events, and the failure of the authorities to punish any of the public officials or members of the mobs who were concerned.

Studies in progress in this field during 1929 include one by Walter Nells, of the Yale Law School, on injunctions in labor cases, and a series of studies by the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement on official lawlessness in relation to civil rights.

CONSULT: Chafee, Zechariah, Jr.: *Freedom of Speech*, 1920, and *The Inquiring Mind*, 1928; Hays, Arthur Garfield: *Let Freedom Ring!* 1928; Whipple, Leon: *The Story of Civil Liberty*, 1927, and *Our Ancient Liberties*, 1927; Phelps, E. M.: *Civil Liberty* (Reference Shelf, vol. 4, no. 9, H. W.

Wilson Co.), 1927; Frankfurter and Greene: *The Labor Injunction*, 1930; and "Use of Injunctions in Labor Disputes," in *Information Service*, March 8, 1930 (Federal Council of Churches).

ROGER N. BALDWIN

For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS. This article deals with the clinical study of adult offenders by psychiatrists or psychologists, whether attached to a court, a penal or reformatory institution, or to a state correctional agency. For clinical study of juvenile offenders *see* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN. The most important purpose of mental examinations, applied to offenders awaiting trial, is to obtain an evaluation of their personalities in order that the court may make a more intelligent disposition of the cases. For persons already in confinement examinations facilitate decision as to future treatment; for example, whether they should be transferred to institutions for special groups, such as those for the criminally insane or defective delinquents. Examination may also be used in order to assign a man to a suitable occupation, in order to advise the disciplinary officer in case the prisoner becomes a conduct problem, or in order to advise the parole board as to his suitability for parole. Mental examinations of convicts sentenced to death are important in view of the established legal principle that an insane person should not be executed.

Methods of mental study vary from decidedly cursory examinations to those which include an extensive social history and thoroughgoing psychological and psychiatric tests. In general the only treatment provided is hospitalization, or as great a modification of the occupational and other facilities of an institution as its rules and customs will permit. Specialized institutions for border-line cases are greatly needed.

History and Present Status. The study of offenders as individuals began with Lombroso in 1876. The first court clinic in this country was established by Dr. William Healy in the Chicago Juvenile Court in 1909, and in 1913 the first adult court clinic was organized, in connection with the Municipal Court in Boston, under the direction of Dr. Victor V. Anderson. Pioneering on the institutional side was done by Dr. Guy Fernald through his work at the Massachusetts Reformatory from 1908 on. Dr. A. Warren Stearns, now commissioner of correction of Massachusetts, began his well-known study of inmates of the Massachusetts State Prison in 1913, and in 1916 a psychiatric clinic was established in Sing Sing Prison in New York under Dr. Bernard Glueck. The influence of Dr. Herman F. Adler, who was appointed state criminologist of Illinois in 1917, has likewise been marked. During his tenure of office a well-organized service was established in the correctional institutions of Illinois. The need for service of this character in county jails was emphasized between 1919 and 1924 by a series of state surveys conducted by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, and in 1924 Massachusetts passed a law (Ch. 309) providing for the examination of convicted prisoners in its jails. No other state is doing this as a matter of routine. The movement on the court side was furthered by the establishment of a psychopathic clinic in the Recorder's Court of Detroit in 1920 under the directorship of Dr. Arnold L. Jacoby. More recently the reports of the National Crime Commission have drawn attention to the usefulness of court clinics, and within the past few months the American Bar Association has given approval to the principle. Local and state crime commissions have so far paid but little attention to the subject.

In 1927 the National Crime Commission received replies to questionnaires from 1,168 courts of original criminal jurisdiction, including those dealing with juvenile cases. In these replies 110 courts in 31 states, or 9.4 per cent of the total, reported that they were regularly served by public psychiatric

agencies or had psychiatrists of their own, either on a full-time or part-time basis, and for 70 courts psychologists were reported. Some courts had both forms of service. In 1928 the Commission endeavored to obtain more definite information as to the use made of these services. Replies were received from 76 of the courts which had reported themselves equipped with psychiatric service. In the 38 adult or mixed courts replying, approximately 7 per cent of the defendants were examined psychiatrically. These figures possibly overstate the general situation, for the replies were obtained from a highly selected group of courts—those which had reported psychiatric clinics. Obviously the 7,800 adults examined in these courts represent a very small proportion of the criminal cases disposed of each year. Ordinarily the judge or the probation officer selects the cases for examination. In no case was routine examination of adults reported. The very recent development of work of this character is indicated by the fact that 38 out of the 61 court psychiatrists and 19 of the 35 court psychologists reported had commenced work since January, 1921.

Even in penal and reformatory institutions, where the service developed somewhat earlier, psychiatric aid is a novelty. Since January, 1917, 79 per cent of the prison psychiatrists and 88 per cent of the prison psychologists have been added to the staffs. In a survey made by the National Crime Commission in 1927 only 29 out of 259 institutions reported a full-time psychiatrist employed, and only 64 a part-time psychiatrist. Approximately the same proportions were reported in the case of psychologists. In reply to an inquiry addressed by the Commission in 1928 to the institutions reporting some use of psychiatry, 53 of the 101 institutions reporting stated that all inmates are examined upon admission, as a matter of routine. The other institutions examine only selected cases—apparently those suspected to be suffering from mental disease. Much of the alleged psychiatric work in penal institutions seems to be performed by prison physicians. Since they are usually not trained psychiatrists, the value of the figures reported is somewhat doubtful. Furthermore, the number of admissions to the reporting institutions constitutes less than one-eighth of the estimated number of commitments in the United States.

In several states there are statutory or regulatory provisions for the examination, by official agencies, of specified classes of offenders. In Massachusetts the well-known Briggs Law provides that psychiatrists appointed by the Department of Mental Diseases shall give routine examinations to all persons indicted for a capital offense, also to those who have been bound over or indicted for a felony, if previously convicted of a felony or indicted more than once for any offense. The state mental hygiene clinic of Delaware makes an examination of defendants when so requested by the judge. In Colorado a person who pleads insanity is committed to a state mental hospital for examination and report. Most required mental examinations relate to inmates of penal institutions. The classification clinic at Sing Sing Prison, N. Y., has already been mentioned. It aims to provide a scientific study of each criminal, and on that basis to make recommendations for his care, training, employment, and ultimate disposition. In Michigan, Pennsylvania, and Wisconsin clinics under the control of the state visit the state institutions and make mental examinations of the prisoners. Their findings are used in connection with transfers, where needed, of the mentally deranged, and with reference to the desirability of parole. Mental examinations are made in Illinois of inmates in the state institutions, resident psychiatrists being used for this purpose. Massachusetts, as already mentioned, is the only state which makes routine examinations of inmates of county jails and houses of correction. Only those serving a sentence of more than 30 days are examined, or those who have previously served sentences.

In a few well-organized court clinics trained psychiatric social workers are employed. Usually, however, the social work incident to adequate psychiatric examination is carried on by probation officers. *See* Adult Probation, Juvenile Courts and Probation, and Psychiatric Social Work.

Developments and Events, 1929. Significant changes during the year were few. Several cities, including Los Angeles, Rochester, Philadelphia, and Cincinnati, report additional or new facilities in their courts or institutions. The continued cooperation of committees of the American Bar Association, the American Psychiatric Association, and the American Medical Association culminated in October, at the annual meeting of the Bar Association, in the report of its Committee on Psychiatric Jurisprudence. That report recommended that psychiatric service be made available to all criminal and juvenile courts, and to all penal and correctional institutions; that no criminal be sentenced in a felony case in which the judge has discretion until a psychiatric report has been filed as part of the record; and that no prisoner be released from sentence for felony until a psychiatric report has been made. These recommendations were unanimously adopted by the American Bar Association and forwarded, with the report of the Committee, to all state and local associations for discussion and action. Studies in progress during the year include a survey of prisons and reformatories made by the National Society of Penal Information, the psychiatric facilities of the institutions being among the matters investigated.

Legislation, 1929. California (Ch. 385)—When a defendant pleads not guilty by reason of insanity, the court must select at least two alienists from the medical staff of a state hospital to make examination and testify without compensation; Delaware (Ch. 241)—A state mental hygiene clinic is established which, among other duties, is directed to examine the inmates of any state or county institutions, or persons charged with any offense, when requested to do so by the judge of the court concerned; Massachusetts (Ch. 105)—Reports of examiners are made available to probation officers as well as to the court, the prosecution, and counsel for the defense; New York (Ch. 242)—Legal status is given to the psychiatric clinic at Sing Sing; Ohio (Senate Bill 149)—In counties of over 300,000 population the court may appoint a psychiatrist, a psychologist, or other examiners or investigators; and (Senate Bill 8)—Courts are authorized to commit to a state hospital any defendant pleading insanity as a defense, and to appoint not more than three experts to examine the defendant and testify.

Consult: "The Law and Social Welfare," in *Annals of the American Academy*, September, 1929; Cooley, E. J.: *Probation and Delinquency* (published by the author), 1927; Fernald, Hayes, and Dawley: *A Study of Women Delinquents in New York State*, 1920; Glueck, Bernard: *First Annual Report of the Psychiatric Clinic, Sing Sing Prison* (National Committee for Mental Hygiene), 1917; Glueck, S. Sheldon: *Mental Disorder and the Criminal Law*, 1925; Overholser, W.: "Psychiatric Service in Penal and Reformatory Institutions and Criminal Courts in the United States," in *Mental Hygiene*, October, 1928, and "Use of Psychiatric Facilities in Criminal Courts in the United States," in *Mental Hygiene*, October, 1929; and Kuhlman, A. F.: *A Guide to Material on Crime and Criminal Justice* (prepared by the Committee on Survey of Research on Crime and Criminal Justice of the Social Science Research Council), 1929.

Winfred Overholser

For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 582.

CLINICS AND OUT-PATIENT DEPARTMENTS. The clinic has been defined as an institution which organizes the professional skill of physicians and provides special equipment for the diagnosis and prevention of disease or for the promotion of health among ambulatory patients. It cor-

responds to the ward service given to bed patients in hospitals. When attached to a hospital the clinic is frequently called the out-patient department, the term commonly used in England. The use of the term "dispensary" came about because the first institutions were opened primarily to provide free medicine for physicians' charity patients; and in the modern clinic the name should be applied to that portion of the institution concerned with the giving out of medicine. Throughout this article the terms "clinic" and "out-patient department" will be employed. Pay clinics are those in which doctors are remunerated and patients pay fees which cover the cost of service. In clinics of the usual type either no fees are charged or the fees are only nominal. A group clinic is an association of physicians, usually representing different specialties, who use a common plant and equipment with various degrees of closeness in organization and interrelationships. The outstanding example of such a clinic is the Mayo Clinic at Rochester, Minn. The word clinic is also used to designate a particular division or specialty. The out-patient department of a large hospital may have clinic services in specialties such as medicine, surgery, pediatrics, ophthalmology, neuropsychiatry; ear, nose, and throat; orthopedics, gynecology, cardiac diseases, urology, dermatology, syphilology, or tuberculosis. In smaller institutions services in many specialties may not be available or may be combined.

History and Present Status. The earliest clinic was opened in London in 1696. The Philadelphia Dispensary was established in 1786, the New York Dispensary in 1791, and the Boston Dispensary in 1796. Later, medical schools organized clinics to provide an opportunity for students to observe patients not confined to bed, and since the early part of the twentieth century public health departments and voluntary health organizations have developed large numbers of clinics for the control or prevention of such conditions as tuberculosis, diseases of the heart, venereal diseases, and cancer. The number of clinics in the United States in June, 1926—the latest date for which information is available—was 5,726. Of these, 1,790 were out-patient departments of hospitals, 2,793 were unattached clinics, 923 served special groups only, and 220 were group clinics. There were at that time 197 clinics attached to hospitals for the treatment of nervous and mental conditions, and 79 of the unattached clinics were for mental cases. Hospitals and sanatoria for tuberculosis had 107 clinics attached to them and there were 585 unattached clinics for the tuberculous. One thousand unattached clinics for baby and child hygiene were reported, in addition to the 52 clinics connected with the children's hospitals. The 350 clinics for the treatment of venereal diseases were all independent of hospitals.

Not included in the above total are the pay clinics. The Boston Dispensary organized the first one in 1912. It was an evening clinic for wage-earning patients at which the fees were slightly higher than those charged during the day. Two of the best known pay clinics in the country are the Cornell Clinic in New York City and the University of Chicago Clinic, both of them conducted under the auspices of medical schools. The rapid spread of pay clinics is one of the modern tendencies in this field. Others are the following: integration of the out-patient department with the hospital; the closing of old type "dispensaries," and their affiliation with hospitals or conversion into health centers; the increase in clinic charges; greater emphasis on preventive work, as shown by the organization of child welfare, pre-natal, well-baby, and diagnostic clinics, and clinics for health examinations—either as out-patient departments of hospitals or operated independently by health departments, settlements, churches, and health centers; the development of mental hygiene clinics; increasing appreciation of the importance of the hospital social worker; and the establishment of group clinics by physicians, especially in the West and Middle

West. *See* Health Centers and Hospital Social Work.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the propriety or impropriety of a clinic's advertising was an important subject of controversy. Dr. Louis Schmidt, a prominent urologist, was expelled from the Chicago Medical Society because of an indirect connection with the Public Health Institute. That institution, a non-profit-making organization, has been conducted since 1920 by a board of directors composed of well-known Chicago business men for the treatment of persons of moderate means suffering from venereal diseases, and has advertised in newspapers and through posters. Because of this method of publicity the connection of any physician with it was adjudged unethical by the Chicago Medical Society. Dr. Schmidt appealed his case to the Judicial Council of the American Medical Association before which it was pending at the end of the year. The gift of $900,000 by the Falk family of Pittsburgh to build a clinic for the medical school of the University of Pittsburgh was perhaps the most important single benefaction of the year in the general clinic field. For reference to the Guggenheim gift for the establishment of dental clinics in New York City, *see* Mouth Hygiene. During the year, also, the Julius Rosenwald Fund announced its intention of aiding in the development of pay clinics for persons of moderate means, and in the establishment of pay dental clinics in several representative cities. During the year a study of group clinics was made by the Committee on the Cost of Medical Care, and a study of the cost of outpatient service in 47 of its member institutions by the United Hospital Fund of New York City.

Consult: American Hospital Association, Hospital Library and Service Bureau: *Bibliographies on Dispensaries*, 1925–1926 (References to later material will be compiled by the librarian on request); American Hospital Association: Reports of the Out-Patient Committee in the *Transactions* of the Association. See also issues of *The Modern Hospital, Hospital Management, Hospital Progress*, and *Hospital Social Service*.

Margaret Lovell Plumley

For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 582.

CLUBS FOR BOYS. *See* Boys' Clubs.

CLUBS FOR GIRLS. *See* Girls' Clubs.

COLLEGE SETTLEMENTS. *See* Social Settlements.

COLONIZATION. Jews in small numbers were engaged in farming in this country even before the Revolutionary War, and the establishment of agricultural colonies under Jewish auspices was attempted in the early part of the nineteenth century. But it was not until 1881, immediately following the first heavy influx of Russian-Jewish immigration, that colonization of these groups on an appreciable scale was undertaken. Within less than a decade thereafter at least 16 agricultural colonies were set on foot in various states. Usually the persons united in a colony were recently arrived Jewish immigrants, and they were established as agricultural groups on areas selected and purchased by those in charge of the movement. Owing to various causes—principally lack of guidance and inadequate financing—these colonies were short-lived, with the exception of those in New Jersey, which are still in existence. These failures pointed to the need of a directing agency and led to the founding of the Jewish Agricultural Society in 1900, with funds supplied by the Baron de Hirsch Fund.

Colonization of the type just described is no longer carried on. Activity in Jewish agricultural settlement is confined to the establishment of farmers as individuals, though the aim is to place each new farmer in a section where Jewish farmers are already working. The Jewish Agricultural Society is the sole agency active in this field.

Present Status. Jewish residents of New York and other cities who wish to engage in farming are advised regarding the purchase of farms. Since the World War over 1,000 families have been established on farms, while more than 11,000 individuals have been advised as to farming possibilities. Jewish young men are also given an opportunity to obtain training for farm work and to prepare for farm ownership through employment on farms. Almost 17,000 positions have been filled since 1908 in 32 states. A further service is that of farm loans made against securities not usually accepted by loaning agencies. Repayment is spread over a term of years. Almost 10,000 loans of that character, aggregating $6,250,000, have been granted to farmers in 40 states. Through the society's extension department farmers are advised on the latest and most scientific developments in agriculture; its field instructors carry teaching to the farmer's door; a purchasing bureau is conducted through which farmers may buy approved materials and supplies at reduced costs; and agricultural cooperation is fostered. An agricultural night school for farm aspirants is maintained in New York City, agricultural scholarships are granted and loans are made to students. Higher sanitary standards are promoted in Jewish farming districts, and in cooperation with other agencies community centers have been erected for the advancement of religious and social life among Jewish farmers.

Since the formation of the Society the Jewish farm population has grown from scarcely 1,000 to nearly 100,000. This is due in part to the guidance and support extended by the Society, and in part to the natural momentum of the movement of Jews toward the soil. Jewish farmers are engaged in every branch of farming practiced in the country and are found in every state in the Union.

CONSULT: Reizenstein, Milton: "Agricultural Colonies," in *Jewish Encyclopedia*, 1901–1907; Robinson, Leonard G.: "The Activities of the Jews in America," in the *American Jewish Year Book*, 1912–1913; Davidson, Gabriel: "Our Role in Agriculture," in the *American Hebrew*, November 22, 1929; and annual reports of the Jewish Agricultural Society.

GABRIEL DAVIDSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

THE COLORED. *See* NEGROES.

COMMERCIAL RECREATION is a term applied not only to profit-making activities in the recreational field, but also to recreational activities administered by city or county governments if a charge is made for the use of the facilities offered. If commercial recreation is to meet with success today, the facilities must be clean and adequate and must have the atmosphere of a club. When operated under public auspices, close attention is needed to make the activity self-supporting. A thoroughly successful recreation building is a family institution. Convenience to the home is therefore an important factor in its location. A building in an amusement center ordinarily has good earning power, while one in a semi-commercial residential center offers a greater business risk. It, however, serves a greater social need. Bowling and billiards are the most remunerative activities in any recreation building. At present a noticeable effort is being made by the owners of billiard rooms to raise standards and leave the term "pool-room" for race-track use. The recent increase in bowling revenues may be accounted for by the patronage of women.

Before the use of automobiles became so general, amusement parks were usually conducted by traction companies. When trolley patronage declined most of the parks were closed. Shore properties in many states have survived, however, under municipal control. Playland, at Rye on Long Island Sound, operated by the Westchester County Park Commission, is a notable example of success in this line. People will purchase the best recreation they can afford; and public operation, with profit eliminated, often furnishes a better type of recreation, at a lower cost, than is offered by private

corporations. Many private golf courses in southern California have become semi-commercial enterprises. Their use as state attractions has been made particularly easy for guests, and the clubs have had a corresponding increase in fees. In the average American city there are not sufficient public tennis courts to meet the demand. The nominal price of $1.00 an hour per court is often exceeded. Indoor swimming pools as a form of purchasable recreation show little profit. Recreation buildings erected by real-estate operators in order to promote the sale of their land have proved to be profitable. Commercial recreation is built on a business basis. A close estimate of the probable gross receipts and expenses to determine the net income is necessary. In addition, care must be taken to provide for depreciation and suitable return on the investment.

CONSULT: Phelan, John J.: *Pool, Billiards, and Bowling Alleys as a Phase of Commercialized Amusements in Toledo*, 1919; Burgess, E. W.: *Pool Room Survey of Columbus* (Central Philanthropic Council, Columbus), 1916; and Perry, Clarence A.: "Is Commercial Recreation an Octopus?" in *The Playground*, February, 1928.

HARRY C. STONE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

COMMUNITY CENTERS or social centers are places where neighbors may gather for civic, social, recreational, cultural, or other purposes regardless of race, political persuasion, or religious affiliation. The commonest variety is the public school center in which the auditorium, gymnasium, or other rooms of the public school are used. In centers of the permit type permission is formally granted to a group—a Boy Scout or Girl Scout troup, an extension group from the Young Men's Christian Association, a church club, a social club formed by the children, or a group from an industry—to meet at certain hours on certain days. Less often a well-organized group of people maintains a comprehensive community center in the school, or the public school authorities get the various groups together. Often under the latter arrangement there is a "house council" or "community council," made up of representatives of the various groups, that helps in the management. The term "community center" is sometimes applied to the social and recreational work carried on by churches, or to "Jewish centers"—buildings in which Jewish people conduct athletic, cultural, and recreational activities for their young people. Social settlements are also called "community centers" occasionally, or more often "neighborhood houses." In a few cities buildings other than schools—chiefly in parks—are maintained as recreation centers or park buildings.

History and Present Status. Recreation centers in public parks and social centers in schools were the first community centers other than the privately conducted settlements. They developed in the years 1905 to 1912. The earliest and most important work was done by E. J. Ward in Rochester, N. Y., where the idea of the center as the nucleus of district democracy flowered. In Chicago the small park system produced the most complete park recreation centers or field houses in the country. In New York and other cities community councils sprang into existence under war stimulus and conducted centers in schools. For long periods a few private organizations, formed for the purpose, have maintained democratic, representative, comprehensive centers.

Although there has been a steady increase in the number of cities in which schools have been used for centers, and in the number of centers conducted, the prophecies of the early protagonists have not been fulfilled in any great measure since the centers have not proved powerful influences of neighborhood life. The idea has spread, however, municipalities are extending the publicly conducted centers, and various private organizations are fostering them. The development has shown several different stages. From

centers for entertainment only, the centers became the seat of cultural activities; then neighborhood organization became a fad and almost a religion; war work for its period took the center of the stage, and latterly there has been a very diversified growth and a striking tendency to study the neighborhood and build programs on the basis of local need.

In 1924 there were listed in *The Community Use of Schools*, by Mrs. E. T. Glueck, 1,569 school centers in 722 places reporting. Of these centers, 66 per cent were in places of over 5,000 population, probably more complete reports having been received from such places. However, the use of schoolhouses seemed to the author of that report to be more general in rural districts, because there are fewer gathering places and closer neighborhood relations. It is interesting to note that 41 per cent of the centers were in charge of paid workers, 42 per cent in charge of volunteers, and 17 per cent had both paid and volunteer workers.

The outstanding feature of the activity today is the steady extension of community centers in all parts of the country, and under no one organized direction except as boards of education may occasionally stimulate them. In 1924, according to the report mentioned, 61 per cent of the school centers in the United States were being administered by such boards; in 16 per cent of the cases boards of education shared administration with private agencies, and in 11 per cent private organizations entirely controlled. By and large public management is applied to the more popular athletic and recreation activities, and through the granting of permits and partial supervision to activities carried on by private groups. A promising feature is the steadily improving equipment of the newer schools with dramatics, cooking, meeting, dancing, and other social facilities. Community houses, often properly called community centers, have had a varied history, increasing rapidly in number as "memorials" in the days following the war, and falling back to a rather steady development in later years. No thoroughgoing, country-wide study of any form of community center work has been made, and statements must be based on studies in various cities or sections, or limited studies of centers of one or another special type.

The oldest, most extensive, and one of the most constructive sources of stimulation toward wider use of the school is the university extension course. Through such courses the state universities specially furnish organizing service and supply lecturers, experts, and pamphlet material on almost any community or household problems. The degree to which this university service aids by direct and responsible organizing efforts varies, as does the type of service rendered. Package libraries, slides, and films are sent out in many states. Community betterment institutes are conducted in a few states. In one or two instances the community center aspect of extension work has become the dominating factor, and has resulted in a bureau of community organization or service. In almost every state in the Union the state department of education is assisting localities to establish school centers. The service rendered is similar to that of state universities, but there is not the number of specialists to call upon. Several organizations, such as the National Recreation Association and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, are stimulating the development. The National Community Center Association was formed in 1913 at the meeting of the National Education Association and has held meetings subsequently during the conferences of the latter Association. Yearly its national conference is held with the American Sociological Society between Christmas and New Year, and in the spring a conference is held with the National Conference of Social Work. The latter is an innovation begun in 1929.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Employment in community centers is not to any great extent conditioned on special training for it in some educational institu-

tion. To be competent to organize a center requires leadership capacity, considerable experience in organizing, and a well-rounded general understanding of social organization. Civil service tests are applied in some centers; and in a considerable proportion of them teachers in the day schools, who are civil service employes, constitute the largest number of community center workers. Community organization courses are given at Simmons College, the New York School of Social Work, University of North Carolina, Columbia University, Richmond School of Social Work, and in varying degrees of applicability in other places; and the National Recreation School, of the National Recreation Association, devotes attention to the problems involved in organizing community centers or establishing a city system of centers. There is, however, little specific training for community center work as such.

CONSULT: Glueck, Eleanor T.: *The Community Use of Schools*, 1927; Follett, M. P.: *The New State*, 1918; Perry, Clarence A.: *Wider Use of the School Plant*, 1910, and *Community Center Activities*, 1917; Ward, Edward J.: *The Social Center*, 1913; Dewey, John: *The School and Society*, 1915; Hanifan, L. J.: *The Community Center*, 1920; and Rainwater, Clarence E.: *The Play Movement in the United States*, 1922.

LEROY E. BOWMAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 582.

COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS are agencies dealing with certain problems connected with the organization of social forces in local communities. Chests deal primarily with the coordination of finance, and councils with the coordination of social service, but both concern themselves inevitably with the financial as well as with the social aspects of social performance. The considerations which have brought both into existence are similar, and there is an accelerating tendency toward local combination under a single organization. Councils and chests are therefore treated together in this article.

History and Present Status. Significant events in the early development of the chest movement are the following: The combined financial campaigns in Denver from 1887 on; the Federation of Social Agencies launched in Elmira, N. Y., in 1910; the organization of the Cleveland Federation of Charities and Philanthropy in 1913; and the establishment of the Central Budget Committee of the Cincinnati Council of Social Agencies in 1915. By 1917, 14 cities had organizations for joint financial operations, usually, however, on a much more limited scale than in the community chests which succeeded them.

The war chests of 1917 and 1918 were forerunners in many cities of community chests. By 1922 there were 80 of the latter. In the successive years that followed the numbers were 123; 180; 217; 251; 297; 315; and 335. In 1918 most of the chests and councils of the country united to form a national body now known as the Association of Community Chests and Councils. A conference is held annually at the time of the National Conference of Social Work. In 1929 chests ranged in size from that in Waterloo, N. Y., which raised $3,444 in a city of 5,000 population, to the one in Cleveland, where $4,654,358 was raised in a community of 1,150,000 population. Among the large cities only New York, Chicago, and Boston still have no chests. The advisability of organizing community chests either has been studied or is now being investigated by agencies in those cities.

Chests are not uniformly inclusive of the social agencies in their communities. The types of agencies which vary most in this particular, from city to city, are those such as tuberculosis associations and local Red Cross chapters which have well-developed means for raising funds locally. Thus, out of 190 tuberculosis associations in chest cities, studied by the National Tuberculosis Association in 1928, 104 were not members of

their local chests. In the "roll call" of the American Red Cross in 1928, 236 chapters participated in community chests, while a considerable number did not. It is also desirable that Jewish, Catholic, and Protestant agencies should all join hands in the movement with the non-sectarian agencies, but in some cases they do not. For example, in 49 of the 61 chest cities in which Jewish social work is significantly organized, the Jewish agencies participate in the chest movement; in the other cities they do not.

By admitting agencies to membership, chests give them endorsement. Frequently where chests do not exist, and in some cities alongside of chests, endorsement committees are found. *See* ENDORSEMENT OF SOCIAL AGENCIES.

Pressing problems confront chests—some growing out of their financial responsibility to insure a reasonably adequate program of human welfare services, and others arising from the rapid spread of chests among small communities where the difficulties of organization are great. If the first problem is in general to be met, increased support of social work from tax funds is necessary, as well as increased endowments, in proportion as chests reach the limit—temporary, at any rate—of voluntary support. Maintenance of local sources of income is also essential, in spite of the growing nationalization of business in terms of chain store and branch factory development. Research activities to meet these problems are referred to under a later heading.

Another problem is the relation of chests to the national and state-wide organizations which draw their support in part from the contributions of individuals or constituent organizations in the different chest cities. Special budget hearings, attended by representatives of state and national agencies, have been held by chests, in a number of instances to good effect. A realistic recognition that chests are a phenomenon with which to deal practically rather than a development to be deplored and condemned has led a number of the national organizations to set about gaining an understanding of the conditions under which support of such organizations through chests is likely to be achieved. This problem has been one of those discussed by the National Social Work Council, organized in 1922. Beginning prior to that date with an informal group of 12 executives of national organizations, its membership now includes representatives of 22 such bodies.

Early in the present century the movement for coordination of the service programs of social agencies resulted in the organization of councils of social agencies in several cities—Milwaukee (1909), St. Louis (1911), Cleveland (1913), Cincinnati (1913), Minneapolis (1916), and Chicago (1917). These organizations antedated the chests in their cities, but in Milwaukee, St. Louis, Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Minneapolis they have since been merged to a greater or less degree in the chests. This is the usual development where both chests and councils have been formed. Exceptions are found, however, in Buffalo, Pittsburgh, and Montclair, N. J. The principal cities in which councils have been organized without chests are New York, Boston, and Chicago.

Among the social problems which are presented with increased clearness under joint finance are the following: How many organizations are addressing themselves to practically the same problems, and what should be done toward reducing the number of such agencies? What variation is there in the quality and cost of service rendered by similar agencies, and how can they all be brought to a proper standard of quality and cost? In what ways may agencies in different fields be related cooperatively to each other? In the interest of a symmetrical development of service, what practical limitations may be placed on certain agencies or types of work which are pressing for rapid expansion? Under what auspices should new work be developed to meet human needs discovered but not served by existing agencies? In practice, chests and councils attack these and similar problems through com-

mittee activities ranging from the incidental investigation of a chest board and budget committee to the complicated research and coordination machinery developed by councils in the larger centers. Louisville's "three-way council" is an illustration. Affiliated with the chest are a health council, a family and child welfare council, and a recreative council, each with a staff secretary. Teamwork between these groups was shown recently when a suggestion was made by the health council to the recreation council that the latter's plans for new recreation buildings should include space for health clinics.

Uniform methods of accounting are basic to a chest program. Other joint efforts quite widely promoted by chests and councils cooperatively include joint purchasing of commodities and joint bookkeeping service, especially for supplying service to smaller agencies, and joint office arrangements. So valuable is a well-organized social service exchange, and a proper community understanding of its full scope, that the Association of Community Chests and Councils has accepted the former Association of Social Service Exchanges as one of its departments. Promotion of social legislation is more likely to be considered a chest function when it involves such questions as additional tax support of social welfare, while councils try to engage in legislative activities on this basis and broader ones. Individual agencies tend to seek the assistance of the council in legislative projects which interest them. Educational publicity is recognized as a joint activity among chest, council, and the member agencies. The early tendency to relieve the latter of responsibility in this matter has now spent itself. In well-organized chests, service statistics are collected from member organizations either monthly or annually. The project for an inter-city registration of social statistics, carried on by the Association of Community Chests and Councils and the University of Chicago, grew in part out of such activities, for it had become apparent that service figures were essential for all agencies, public and private, whether in the chest or not. Detroit and Cleveland have made special use of the figures so gathered in fixing the budgets of member organizations. *See* STATISTICS OF SOCIAL WORK.

Developments and Events, 1929. Conspicuous among the developments of the year was the organization of a new training course for chest and council executives. This took place in July, when Charles C. Stillman, formerly executive of the Grand Rapids Community Chest, became professor of social administration in Ohio State University through an arrangement between that institution and the Association of Community Chests and Councils. Both a full year's graduate course and a shorter course were announced. Apprenticeship in well-equipped chests was to be a factor during one-quarter of the graduate course, and subsequent to it in the case of younger students. A course in chest administration was also given in the New York School of Social Work.

During the year 100 inquiries came to the Association from communities which were considering the organization of chests. New chests were recorded in 27 cities, and 14 chests were recorded as abandoned. Only one of the latter was in a city of 50,000 or greater population. The 330 chests which held campaigns in the fall of 1928 and spring of 1929 raised $71,978,593. This figure includes partial estimates in some cases. Campaigns in the fall of 1929 were jeopardized by the crash in the stock market which occurred in November, the month in which the largest number of chest campaigns are held. Nevertheless, as compared with 1928, a gain of nearly 4 per cent was shown in the amount subscribed by cities reporting for both years.

Specific examples of financial difficulties were reported from chests in Detroit, Philadelphia, Richmond, Va., Atlanta, Omaha, Indianapolis, and other places. On the whole, however, the results were surprisingly good. In Washington, D. C., the campaign

of the newly organized chest brought twice the amount the member organizations had previously obtained, with an over-subscription of the goal by $150,000. Seattle also staged a spectacular comeback into the list of successful community chests after several years of difficulty.

No marked developments in the principles or practice of joint finance were recorded during the year. The Hartford chest for the first time solicited subscriptions from corporations as well as individuals, a general practice elsewhere. The Cincinnati chest developed "industrial solicitation" in over 500 factories, departing radically from its previous policy of soliciting employes of stores and factories at their homes. In Dayton the Foreman's Club of 1,100 members was utilized in organizing industrial solicitation. In Harrisburg employes were asked to give at least $5.00. Those unable to do so were "frankly excused." The amount given by employes trebled, and the number contributing increased one-third. The Memphis and Jacksonville chests, in their industrial solicitation, emphasized "employes' fellowships"—permanent organizations of employed groups. The Indianapolis chest also used fellowships for publicity and policy-making purposes. Although chests somewhat generally profess not to be so much concerned as formerly with the importance of the so-called "immunity rule"—the usual promise to contributors that they will not be solicited by constituent organizations—no startling deviations from it were recorded during the year. Several chests, however, for the first time permitted the direct sale of tuberculosis seals by member tuberculosis organizations.

Dallas, Denver, Grand Rapids, Portland, and Providence report difficulty in obtaining gifts from chain stores and branch factories. St. Louis is concerned because bank consolidations affected giving. Seattle reports, however, that the sale of two large local department stores to national corporations did not affect their gifts. To assist in a solution of this problem, a study was begun during the year by the National Bureau of Economic Research, under arrangement with the Association of Community Chests and Councils, a special fund having been raised for the purpose.

Bridgeport and Harrisburg report that the campaign goal of 1929 was determined by the needs of the social work program, without reference to the total deemed possible to secure. In Bridgeport, to a greater extent than formerly, the needs in the various fields of social work were studied as a whole and in relation to one another, and less importance was accorded the demands made by individual agencies. Philadelphia studied allowances to national organizations with more than usual care. Such bodies were invited to submit budget material directly to the budget committee of the chest. By that means the chest grants to national organizations were said to have been more nearly equalized.

In the matter of raising funds for capital expenditures, several cities, including Omaha and Tacoma, report the formulation of policies similar to those already approved by older chests. Combined campaigns for capital purposes, such as that promoted in Detroit in 1928, seem not to have called for such large sums in 1929.

Organizations which joined chests during the year for the first time were in the main from fields in which agencies are included in some cities and not in others. The following types were represented: Hospitals in three cities, Catholic bureaus in two cities and leagues for the hard of hearing in two cities, and in one city each, a Big Sisters association, a Big Sisters home, a Camp Fire Girls branch, a bureau for the placement of colored children, a branch of the Volunteers of America, a legal aid society, a Catholic institutional church for Negroes, a child guidance clinic, a joint committee of the local Florence Crittenton Mission and a civic protective association, a prisoners' aid society, a Santa Claus club, and a branch of the Goodwill Industries movement. Five applications for admission were refused.

The list of agencies which withdrew from chests during the year is in part drawn from fields of a similar character and is in part made up of organizations which felt a decreased need, or no further need, for support from contributions. Included were the following: A home for the aged, a home for children and a "sheltering arms" home, because their endowments had increased; a Baptist hospital, which had become self-supporting; a "motion picture pity fund"; an animal refuge; a house of industry for discharged prisoners; chapters of the American Red Cross in two cities; and a Boy Scout organization.

During the year Los Angeles established a council of social agencies and Philadelphia initiated a more inclusive council. In functional reorganizations and developments the most conspicuous changes were the creation of departments, divisions, sections, or councils—in several cities which had not already taken such action—on health, recreation, families, and children. Next in order were the movements for organizing groups to deal with group-working or character-building agencies, settlements, illegitimacy, camps, crippled children, delinquency, the aged and transients. In two cities groups were formed to stimulate better administration by public agencies, and in one community—Kansas City, Mo.—a "federation of justice" was launched, with a central registry of cases handled by the courts. In most cases these groups were representative bodies of agencies in the council, without professional executives, though having the assistance usually of staff members of the council or chest. An exception to that general rule was the Neighborhood Workers Association organized in Kansas City and sharing a secretary with the Council.

Among council activities during the year along lines which were new at least for the cities reporting them, that mentioned most often, apart from the publication of local directories of social work, involved the important function of improving the standards of work of member agencies. In Los Angeles formal "standards" were prepared for case working agencies; two cities devoted attention particularly to summer camps, two made important progress in districting their population for the coordination of vital and social statistics, and St. Louis succeeded in having a social case worker employed in every children's home. Other added services, reported in each case from one city were: A central reporting system for statistical data in the family welfare field; uniform service records in social centers and family and children's agencies; a joint placement bureau for children's institutions; group insurance for employes of the chest and council or of member agencies; and a plan developed and put into operation for the control of begging. Indianapolis published a handbook of social resources, stating the policy of all agencies serving individuals.

During the year, also, professional courses along new lines were developed for special groups as follows: In Cleveland on "Administration of Institutions for Children," in Washington on "Administration of Social Work," and in St. Louis a new department was organized for training colored social workers. Developments of the year in the field of educational publicity were most striking in respect to a new medium used—the sound film radio. Radio broadcasting seems to have been developed on a particularly effective basis in New York and St. Louis.

Many studies were completed during the year under the auspices of chests or councils, but only the most brief summary of them can be given here. In the health field the Philadelphia hospital and health survey, the New York inventory of the work of all private health agencies, the Louisville health appraisal, and the New Haven health survey were conspicuous. In two other cities there were studies of public health nursing, and in one city each, studies of the following subjects were reported: general health services, clinic services, convalescent care, health examinations, and cost of medical care. Outside of the health field, in addi-

tion to a long list of studies of the work of individual local agencies, were studies of the following subjects or agency groups: school absences, homes for unmarried mothers, illegitimacy, adoption, day nurseries, the social policy of courts, budget-making processes, child and adult offenders, disabled adults, public and private relief agencies, agencies for leisure time, services to transient men, the Negro and Mexican populations, and the aged population of the city both within and without institutions. In addition to the preceding local studies the relation of Jewish federations to the chests in their cities was investigated by the Bureau of Jewish Social Research.

Important studies were in progress during 1929 under the auspices of community chests and councils in the following cities on the subjects named: New York City, settlements; Cleveland, informal health education courses, white and Negro case rates, and cost of desertion; Denver, the juvenile court and public health activities; Indianapolis, recreation; New Haven, social conditions in neighborhoods; Minneapolis and Boston, employment of the handicapped; Washington, prisoners' aid work, summer outing facilities, and care of transients; Milwaukee, the aged in their homes; Grand Rapids, hospital costs and coordination of public and private social work; Pittsburgh, relation of family and children's welfare work; Cincinnati, evaluation of the results of family welfare work; and Bridgeport, children's work.

CONSULT: American Association for Organizing Charity: *Financial Federations*, 1917; Devine, Edward T.: *Welfare Federations* (series of four articles in the *Survey*), 1921; *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, Section on Organization of Social Forces; McLean, Francis H.: *The Central Council of Social Agencies*, 1921; Persons, W. Frank: *Central Financing of Social Agencies*, 1922; Lee, Joseph: *Shall Boston Adopt the Community Chest?*, 1926; Norton, William J.: *Cooperative Movement in Social Work*, 1927; Dunham, Arthur: *Community Councils in Action*, 1929; O'Grady, John: "Cooperation in Social Building," in *The Family*, July, 1929; Russell Sage Foundation Library: "Bibliography on Community Chests," in its *Bulletin*, June, 1929; and bulletins and other publications of the Association of Community Chests and Councils.

HOMER W. BORST

COMMUNITY COUNCILS. *See* COMMUNITY CENTERS and COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

COMMUNITY FOUNDATIONS. *See* FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION is a phrase used in several specific meanings, but referring in general in almost every instance to the social relationships immediately surrounding the individual and through which he is related to society, or to the processes through which those relationships evolve or are more consciously established. The universal element in all usages of the term is the assumption of common interest of the individuals involved, or of a state in which each is affected by the same set of conditions. This is indicated by the probable derivation of the word "community"; that is, being walled together as in a mediæval town. The word "organization" is sometimes used to refer to the established and habitual set of relationships that form a network or complex of associational forms or groupings—the structure of that small social area immediately surrounding the individual. It is this meaning which the sociologist uses, particularly when engaged in community research. *See* RESEARCH IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION.

Attention was drawn to the community as a distinct field when it was first generally appreciated that change was occurring in fundamental communal associations and habits, and that the unity inherent in old neighborhood relations had largely been lost. There followed a more or less conscious effort for a constructed unity, and hence the term "community organization" has most often been associated with the effort to organize. The sociologist when he uses the

phrase is likely to think of the long, slow process or processes that evolve; the administrator thinks of the activities he goes through to establish himself (or his organization) in the locality; the residents and participants think of the group experience in which they come together or are brought together, usually for a purpose and always with some measure of give and take and assumption of leadership, developing thereby opportunities for ego expression and a feeling of security in their association and companionship. Because it is a process of more or less conscious change, community organization connotes improvement or readjustment to new social needs, and also an effort to bring every one involved under the influence of the procedure. Ordinarily there is assumed a democratic system of control, but that is by no means the actuality in many forms of community work.

Community centers, community councils, neighborhood associations, and to some extent civic societies represent movements of the residents, or those interested in a given locality, to band together for common benefits. *See* COMMUNITY CENTERS and CIVIC AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS. Most commonly the locality is a limited neighborhood of occasionally as few as 5,000 people in urban communities, and coterminous with the settlement in small towns. The members are ideally a cross-section or a majority of the residents, varying in complexity of composition with the homogeneity or heterogeneity of the district. The organizing responsibility is assumed by one of the indigenous leaders or by an outside person. Social settlements have many features of community organization. Their efforts, it is true, have chiefly concerned individuals, but by assisting them to reach their own best development, leadership in general neighborhood matters has often been stimulated.

Institutions like the church find their concrete expression necessarily in local communities, and the establishment of their branches or institutions is often called community organization. Latterly some local churches have adopted the designation "community" when they have made an effort to unite more than one denomination, or have endeavored more than is usual to serve everyone, or a majority, in the district. For this reason also social agencies, especially recreation agencies, often call themselves community agencies. There are, in addition, national organizations which seek to establish units in towns, counties, cities, or neighborhoods of cities and to organize local support for them. They sometimes call the effort community organization.

In one field particularly the affiliating of local organizations of related types is sometimes called community organization, namely, the federation of social service agencies in a community chest or a welfare council. In such a federation there is seldom much participation of political, religious, or business interests except as the last named share in the control because of financial contributions. There is inherent, however, the feeling of uniting and striving for improvement and adjustment. The city rather than the neighborhood or section of the city is the area of organization. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

LE ROY E. BOWMAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION RESEARCH. *See* RESEARCH IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION.

COMMUNITY TRUSTS. *See* FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.

COMMUNITY WELFARE SOCIETIES or ASSOCIATIONS. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

COMPENSATION FOR INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

COMPENSATION FOR OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES. *See* OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

COMPENSATION TO EX-SERVICE MEN. *See* VETERANS.

COMPULSORY EDUCATION. Following the long struggle for the establishment of free schools, compulsory education laws were enacted in every state—first in Massachusetts in 1852, and last in Mississippi in 1918. They are obviously child welfare measures, protective of the child's interests and those of the future state. Opposition came from parents and from members of certain church groups who held that the state had no right to prescribe the amount and type of education to be given children, and from parents who held that they were entitled to the earnings of their children. Enforcement bureaus still meet with active resistance on these grounds.

Lack of uniform and efficient child accounting techniques, coupled with uneven public sentiment regarding enforcement, renders national statistics on truancy and non-attendance unavailable. In only four or five states have adequate state systems of child accounting been established or projected. Truancy and non-attendance remain serious problems, especially in rural communities. According to the United States census, from 6 to 27 per cent of the children between 7 and 16 are not attending school, the percentages varying according to age.

Problems of enforcement are most difficult in densely populated areas and in apathetic rural communities. The same home and community conditions which make compulsory education a necessary measure tend to defeat its purposes. Largely to meet these difficulties socialized movements of great importance have developed within the school, notably curricular adaptations of many types, the employment of visiting teachers, and the establishment of child guidance clinics. Study of the behavior of children has demonstrated the fact that punitive measures alone are socially inadequate and unintelligent. Modern attendance departments are therefore being provided with social case workers who have had training and experience in both teaching and social service.

Developments and Events, 1929. Recent changes in this field, some of them especially marked during 1929, may be classified as follows: Improvement in enforcement techniques, chiefly in the field of child accounting; a greater socialization of attendance services; important modifications within the school to adapt it more closely to the children's needs; and a trend toward the further extension of compulsory education and the corresponding further restriction of child labor. Significant in connection with the first of these trends was the conference of state commissioners of education held in 1929 to consider standardization of methods and terms. During the year the State Department of Education in Ohio inaugurated the employment of a director of child accounting, and a thorough study was made of the administration of compulsory education in the state. In Indiana the required qualifications for employment as attendance officers were raised.

The most important legislative changes during the year were a Pennsylvania law (No. 210) providing for the certification of home and school visitors as attendance officers, and a Texas law (Ch. 97) lowering the minimum age for compulsory attendance to six years. California and Utah passed laws further regulating attendance at part-time schools. Oregon and Nebraska modified their existing laws to define more carefully minor particulars.

CONSULT: Keesecker, Ward W.: *A Summary of Laws Relating to Compulsory Education* (Bulletin No. 20, Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior), 1928; Ensign, Forrest C.: *Compulsory School Attendance and Child Labor*, 1921; Emmons, Frederick E.: *City School Attendance Service* (Teachers College), 1926.

NEWTON H. HEGEL

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

Conferences of Social Work

CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK are one of the most important means, and historically almost the oldest means, through which progress in organized social activities has been promoted. In addition to what their programs provide, conferences afford opportunities to persons who face common problems to compare experiences, methods, successes, and failures and thus learn from one another. Besides the general conferences of social work—national, state, regional, and local—there are many conferences promoted by and for workers in special fields. When organized nationally, such conferences are usually built about the annual meeting of the national organization responsible for the gathering. Such specialized conferences are not considered here. Wherever the annual meeting of a national organization is a program meeting of the nature of a conference, that fact, together with the date of the meeting in 1929, is stated under the organization's name in Part II of this volume.

Social work conferences of a general character have developed chiefly along national and state lines. In a few states conferences covering several counties have been organized, and a few cities have conferences of their own. The first International Conference of Social Work, held in Paris in 1928, received a large part of its inspiration from the example of the National Conference of Social Work in the United States, and built its organization along somewhat similar lines.

The National Conference of Social Work was organized in New York City in 1874. It consisted of a group of officials of state boards of charities and the heads of state institutions, such as hospitals for the insane and penitentiaries. These officers had been attending the annual meetings of the American Social Science Association, but felt the need for a separate organization for the discussion of their particular problems. For five years the new organization, called the National Conference of Charities and Correction, met annually with its parent organization, the American Social Science Association. The sixth meeting was held independently at Chicago in 1879. Since then meetings have been held annually, in a different city each succeeding year, so that through the past 57 years the Conference has met at least once in almost every large city in the country. Twice it has crossed the Canadian border to meet in Toronto. In 1917, at the meeting held in Pittsburgh, the changing character of social work was recognized and the name was changed from the National Conference of Charities and Correction to the National Conference of Social Work. In connection with each conference a number of national organizations hold their annual meetings. At the conference of 1929 the following agencies, known as associate groups of the conference, held such meetings:

American Association of Hospital Social Workers
American Association for Labor Legislation
American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers
American Association of Social Workers
American Association of Visiting Teachers
American Birth Control League
American National Red Cross
American Social Hygiene Association
Association of Community Chests and Councils
Association of Schools of Professional Social Work
Big Brother and Big Sister Federation
Child Welfare League of America
Committee on Relations with Social Agencies of the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations
Family Welfare Association of America
Girls' Protective Council
Inter-City Conference on Illegitimacy
International Association of Policewomen
Mothers' Aid Group
National Association of State Conference Secretaries
National Child Labor Committee
National Community Center Association
National Conference of International Institutes
National Conference of Jewish Social Service
National Conference of Social Service of the Protestant Episcopal Church
National Probation Association
Salvation Army
Social Work Publicity Council
The Survey

Since 1876 the proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work have been published annually. These volumes constitute a record of great importance to students of

social work. They show new areas added, changing methods, and changes in conceptions of the goal of social work. From the beginning it has been the policy of the Conference to take no official action on public or legislative questions by resolution or otherwise. The one exception made to the policy was in 1917, when the following resolution was adopted: "In the present great national emergency, when the full strength of the nation, physical, mental, and moral, is needed, as never before, and when the conservation of food-grain is of crucial importance, we favor the absolute national prohibition of the manufacture, importation, and sale of intoxicating beverages during the war and for at least one year thereafter."

State and City Conferences apparently began to be organized about 1890. They now exist in 42 states, as shown in the following list:

STATE CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK

Note. Symbols used are:

FT—Secretary employed on full time.
PT—Secretary employed on part time.
I —Institutes or study courses conducted.
A —Action taken on public questions.

All conferences not otherwise indicated are called "conferences" or "state conferences" of, on, or for social work. The name and address, unless otherwise specified, is that of the secretary, and the month is stated in which the conference met in 1929.

Alabama
S. L. Peavy, Alexander City; April.

Arizona (Association of Social Workers) (I) (A)
Alice Jane Fulmer, Realto Apartments, Tucson; February.

Arkansas (PT) (I) (A)
Mrs. Lillian McDermott, 804 Wolfe Street, Little Rock; November.

California (FT) (A)
Anita Eldridge, Exposition Auditorium, San Francisco; June.

Colorado (A)
Agnes Donaldson, care Associated Charities, Colorado Springs; October.

Connecticut
Mrs. Norma C. Anderson, 732 Chapel Street, New Haven; May.

Delaware
Mrs. Patricia Manchester, Consumers' League, Ford Building, Wilmington; no conference in 1929.

Florida (I)
Sherwood Smith, Dyal Church Building, Jacksonville; March.

Georgia (PT)
Mrs. Edgar A. Davidson, 53½ Baker Street, N. W., Atlanta; February.

Illinois (Conference on Public Welfare) (I) (A)
Edna Zimmerman, Room 530, The Capitol, Springfield; October.

Indiana
William A. Hacker, 150 North Meridian Street, Indianapolis; October.

Iowa (A)
Mrs. Dorothy Tumy, Social Service League, Oskaloosa; October.

Kansas (A)
Herman Newman, 918 Kansas Avenue, Topeka; March.

Kentucky (I) (A)
Mrs. Lula D. Krakaur, 215 East Walnut Street, Louisville; October.

Maine (Social Welfare) (A)
Rose Pearl Danforth, 8 Brown Street, Portland; October.

Maryland
Paul T. Beisser, 31 South Calvert Street (President), Baltimore; April.

Massachusetts
Howard C. Raymond, 35 Chardon Street, Boston; September.

Michigan (PT) (I)
Mrs. Edith M. Dudman, 23 South Division Avenue, Grand Rapids; October.

Minnesota (PT) (I) (A)
Mrs. John J. Doyle, Administration Building, University of Minnesota, Minneapolis; September.

Mississippi (Social Welfare) (A)
N. B. Bond, University Mississippi, University, October.

Missouri (Conference for Social Welfare) (FT) (I) (A)
Harold J. Matthews, 231 West Agriculture Building, Columbia; November.

Montana (A)
Emanuel Sternheim (President), 651 West Granite Street, Butte; November.

Nebraska (PT)
Ada M. Barker, Lincoln; November.

New Hampshire (A)
Mrs. Remick, Concord; February.

New Jersey (FT) (I)
Maud Bryan Foote, 42 Bleecker Street, Newark; December.

New York (FT) (I)
Mrs. Mary B. Holsinger, 23 South Pearl Street, Albany; November.

North Carolina (Social Service) (A)
Harriet L. Herring, University of North Carolina, Chapel Hill; February.

North Dakota (I) (A)
Selma Karlstad, 1505 Fifth Avenue, South, Fargo; May.

Ohio (Ohio Welfare Conference) (PT) (I)
Perry P. Denune, 109 Commerce Building, Ohio State University, Columbus; October.

Oklahoma (Oklahoma Association of Social Workers) (A)
Mrs. Winifred C. Brown, United Charities, Muskogee; November.

Oregon (Conference of the Social Workers Association) (A)
Elizabeth F. Goddard, 1212 Buyers Building, Portland; November.

Pennsylvania (Social Welfare) (PT) (I)
E. D. Solenberger (President), 311 South Juniper Street, Philadelphia; February.

South Carolina (PT)
Margaret Laing, 228 Capers Building, Greenville; October.

Tennessee
William C. Headrick, State Department of Institutions, 418 Sixth Avenue, North, Nashville; April.

Texas (Social Welfare)
Margaret Renkin, 541 First National Bank, Houston; March.

Utah State (I)
Lydia Alder, 28 Bishops Building, Salt Lake City; October.

Vermont (A)
Mrs. F. S. Locke, Community House, Springfield; October.

Virginia (I) (A)
Arthur W. James, 103 State Office Building, Richmond; May.

Washington (A)
Marion Hathway, Sociology Department, University of Washington, Seattle; June.

West Virginia (I) (A)
Mrs. Scott Camp, care Children's Hospital, Huntington; May.

Wisconsin (FT) (I) (A)
Aubrey W. Williams, 313 University Extension Building, University of Wisconsin, Madison; October.

Wyoming
Mrs. L. T. Cox, 420 West Pershing Boulevard, Cheyenne; October.

The first state conferences were, as a rule, patterned in organization and method after the national body. Of late years, however, there has been a tendency to adopt instead a type of organization more closely related to the social needs of the particular state. Two additional trends in the work of these conferences are noticeable. The first of these is the development of study courses or institutes designed to offer opportunities for training in the technique of social work. Originating in Ohio seven years ago, these study courses are now operated in one form or another in at least 17 states, as designated in the preceding list. Such courses furnish opportunity for short intensive study, usually about the equivalent of 15 hours of university work, under the direction of an instructor. Lectures are given and there is discussion of illustrative case material in some limited field and of particular problems brought in by members of the group. The courses are usually given a day or two before the opening of the state conference and are limited in attendance to about 25. All types of social workers have used these opportunities.

A second tendency noted in the development of state conferences has been the employment of secretaries on full time. The functions of these secretaries—who are now employed in California, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, and Wisconsin—vary somewhat, depending on the policies of the conferences in the other matters referred to here. In eight additional states, designated on the preceding list, secretaries are employed whose time is divided between the conference and some other organization, frequently the state university.

Nineteen state conferences, following the example of the national conference, have taken no official action on public or legislative questions. The Wisconsin conference, however, during 1929 helped to secure the passage of the so-called Children's Code—a revision of child welfare legislation which had been undertaken at the instigation of the conference—and 22 other conferences report that they take action on public questions. These conferences are indicated on the preceding list. Other activities sometimes undertaken include giving assistance to local organizations or to local communities seeking

to organize social work; also the making of studies and surveys on a variety of matters.

Local conferences have found little place so far in social work. New York, however, has had such a conference since 1910. Philadelphia has had one for several years, known as the All-Philadelphia Conference. Cleveland has had one, and Houston, Tex., held its first conference in 1929. Whether city conferences are to become a permanent feature of social work, even in large cities, is still problematical.

Events of significance in the conference field during 1929 were the organization of a new conference in Arizona and the employment of full-time secretaries for the first time in New York and Missouri. The year also saw the publication of the proceedings of the first international conference, and the beginning of organization for the second international conference, to be held in Frankfort, Germany, in 1932.

CONSULT: *Proceedings* of the National Conference of Social Work, 1874 to 1929, inclusive; and proceedings of many state conferences.

HOWARD R. KNIGHT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

CONFIDENTIAL EXCHANGES. *See* SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES.

CONVALESCENT CARE. Convalescence may be defined as a period intervening between acute illness and the recovery of normal health. During this period many somatic and psychic adjustments take place in the individual patient. Recovery can be expedited if the proper environmental conditions are provided, and proper convalescent care may forestall the recurrence of disease. A change in environment, which is often an asset in convalescence, is out of the question for most people except when it is provided for them at a very low cost in institutions created for the purpose. To those in moderate circumstances who after a period of illness must recuperate in their own homes the services of a visiting nurse may be of great value in rendering the home environment as conducive as possible to speedy recovery. But in many homes even such service is not obtainable, and it is for this class of patients that convalescent homes are a godsend.

History and Present Status. The movement for institutional convalescent care, in the modern meaning of the term, is still in its infancy in this country, but physicians are now rapidly breaking away from the idea that to send a patient to the country after a serious illness is all that is necessary. Modern convalescent care is dynamic and creative in its nature. It provides patients with comfortable surroundings, good food and rest, and by furnishing supervised recreation, selected occupation, games, educational guidance in hygiene, spiritual influences, and helpful association it seeks to save them from introspection and brooding over their illness and to prepare them for the resumption of normal life duties. Modern convalescent homes aim not only to restore patients to health, but to teach them the principles of rational living. The establishment of the Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation in 1902 was a landmark in the evolution of modern institutional care for convalescents. The energy, vision, and idealism of its director, Dr. Frederic Brush, have given impetus to the whole movement. In connection with the Burke Foundation a special endowment has been created, known as the Sturgis Fund, the purpose of which is to stimulate and publish studies in the field of convalescent care.

The first serious attempt to study convalescent care as a complement to hospital care was in 1924, when a survey of the hospital situation in Greater New York was completed by the Public Health Relations Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine. Following the publication of this report the same committee formulated desiderata for proper convalescent care, based on studies by specialists in the several

branches of medicine and surgery. As a result the Hospital Information and Service Bureau of the United Hospital Fund, a New York City agency, created a special department whose purpose it is to coordinate the work of all the agencies in the city concerned in providing convalescent care, institutional as well as domiciliary. This department collects information concerning vacancies; helps to bring that information to the knowledge of the social service departments of hospitals; undertakes the placement of patients in country convalescent homes which have no admission offices in the city; collects statistics in relation to the number and types of patients served and those for whom facilities cannot be provided; furnishes all the institutions with uniform record cards; and compiles annually an annotated list of convalescent homes which is a part of the general directory of social agencies of New York City. The department has made and published several important studies in its field and assisted in preparing a very useful booklet on *Minimum Standards for Convalescent Homes*, which was published by the Welfare Federation in 1928. It has demonstrated the need of a coordinated service of this type for all large cities.

From the latest available directory of convalescent homes, published in 1927 by the Sturgis Fund, it appears that there are only 22 states in which homes for convalescent care exist, and on the basis of the bed capacity about one-half of the available facilities are within Greater New York or serve that city. Health and hospital inventories recently made in Cleveland, Cincinnati, and Philadelphia point out the lack of facilities for convalescent care. The burden of the recommendations of all these surveys is the need for reorganization of existing convalescent homes to meet reasonably adequate standards, and for the formation of central clearing bureaus to study local needs and to promote better utilization of existing facilities.

The demand for convalescent care is even more elastic than that for hospital facilities proper. Efforts to synchronize the discharge of patients from hospitals with admissions to convalescent homes make for better utilization of the latter. Trustees and managers of convalescent homes need to realize that their policies must fit actual conditions. As a rule the patients whom they prefer to accept are those who require the least attention and are the least troublesome. This preference works to the detriment of others who may be needing care more urgently, but who have a disturbing cough, or who have need of a special diet which they cannot get in their homes, or who may be "queer." The time is rapidly approaching when convalescent homes will agree on a principle of differentiation or specialization, and will not attempt to serve all kinds of patients when their facilities may not be equal to the varying needs of the several groups.

An adequate basis for determining the per capita need of institutional provision for convalescent care in a community has not as yet been definitely established. It is very difficult to do so, because conditions vary greatly from place to place. For large industrial cities an estimate has been 12 per cent of the existing hospital bed capacity. This is supposed to take into account the requirements of ambulatory patients as well. Judging from recently ascertained experience in New York, this empirical ratio will have to be made higher, as about 60 per cent of the patients in convalescent homes are referred from the out-patient departments. The average cost of convalescent care per patient per day is about $2.00, or two-and-a-half times less than the average cost in the hospital. Adequate facilities for convalescent patients have the effect of increasing the hospital resources of a community by relieving the hospitals of patients who no longer need full hospital care, but who cannot be sent to their own homes because the conditions there are unfavorable. Under the pressure of social service organizations the medical profession and society at large are taking an increasing interest in the problem of convalescent care. There is need of further

benefactions to make possible the development of this hitherto neglected field of public service.

CONSULT: Brush, Frederic: "The Essentials for Convalescent and Sub-standard Health Care," in *Hospital Social Service*, May, 1927; Bryant, John: *Convalescence, Historical and Practical* (Sturgis Fund), 1927; Conklin, Charles R.: *Some Problems of Convalescence* (from supplementary volume to Billings-Forchheimer's *System of Therapeutics*), 1929; Corwin and Kidner: *Standards for Convalescent Homes—Policy, Organization, Planning*, 1930; New York Academy of Medicine, Public Health Relations Committee: *Institutional Convalescent* (Sturgis Fund), 1925; United Hospital Fund of New York, Hospital Information and Service Bureau: *Convalescence for Neuro-psychiatric Patients—Report of Study of Results in Two Convalescent Homes* (Sturgis Fund), 1925, and "Urgent Need of Facilities for Negro Convalescence," in *Hospital Social Service*, August, 1926; and Welfare Council of New York City: *Minimum Standards for Convalescen Homes*, 1928.

E. H. LEWINSKI CORWIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

CORRECTION, HOUSES OF. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

COST OF MEDICAL CARE. Medical services cost the people of the United States an estimated total of two and a half billion dollars annually. Of this sum, more than $700,000,000 is being spent each year for drugs alone. Yet the expenditure of this large amount fails, under the present system, either to provide adequate care for people at rates within their means or to provide an adequate return for many of those who furnish medical services. It is apparent that most patients can pay little if any more for medical service than they are now paying, and it is equally apparent that modern scientific medicine cannot be made generally available unless the cost is somehow paid. In an effort to find a remedy for this situation, several groups have been studying the subject recently. Among these is the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care. It was organized in 1927 to make a five-year study of the economic aspects of the care and prevention of illness. The program of the Committee includes surveys of existing medical needs and facilities, studies of expenditures for medical services and of returns received by physicians and others, and analyses of specially organized facilities. On the basis of the facts gathered, the Committee hopes to formulate a series of recommendations which will point the way to the provision of adequate, scientific medical care for all at a reasonable cost, which at the same time will assure sufficient income to physicians, dentists, nurses, and others concerned.

Governmental agencies have recently shown a growing tendency to supply curative as well as preventive medical service to all citizens, regardless of economic status. This has been done largely through the extension of school and university health activities; the adoption of workmen's compensation laws, providing in many cases for medical and surgical care; the conducting of maternal and infant welfare programs; and the admission of persons not public charges to government hospitals. In addition, community hospitals, supported by taxation or in a few cases by voluntary contributions, have been established in a number of towns and counties, mainly in the Middle West. Medical service for industrial workers has been provided during the past two decades by a number of large companies at little or no cost to employes. The service is primarily for workers injured in accidents, but is often extended to cases of illness with a view to cutting short the period of incapacity. In a few instances the company provides medical care for members of the worker's family as well. An increasing number of department and other retail stores have similar health facilities for their employes.

A few "pay clinics" now provide the services of specialists and the aid of diagnostic and therapeutic equipment at rates more

nearly commensurate with the paying ability of the patient of moderate means than seems possible in private practice. *See* CLINICS AND OUT-PATIENT DEPARTMENTS. Hospital service also is coming to be better adapted to the needs of persons of moderate means. Many institutions are providing beds in small wards, semi-private rooms, and inexpensive single rooms at rates lower than ordinary private room service. There is a tendency to distribute, by various devices, the burden of special charges, such as those for use of the operating room. Financial adjustments for patients of moderate means are becoming increasingly common. Among these, provision for the payment of hospital bills in instalments is particularly interesting.

Health or sickness insurance is available to a small proportion of the people. It is now provided chiefly through group insurance, almost exclusively of industrial workers; by commercial insurance companies in combination with life or accident insurance; and to some extent by mutual benefit associations and fraternal orders. Group accident and health insurance, not including workmen's compensation insurance, now covers almost two million lives. The amount of such insurance has greatly increased in the past two years. At present, the benefits are cash payments only—usually a sum less than weekly earnings; and they are often paid for a limited period of three to six months, although much insurance is written by large companies by which payment is made for the length of the disability, or for life if the disability is permanent.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the Julius Rosenwald Fund inaugurated its program of assisting institutions to build up self-supporting services for persons of moderate means, the following projects being included: (a) pay clinics for persons of moderate means in which patients pay fees approximating cost, including remuneration for the physicians; (b) hospital projects for bed care of persons of moderate means, in which there is provision for dealing with the patient's total bill, *i. e.*, both institutional charges and professional fees; (c) medical, dental, or nursing services for small communities or special groups, worked out in cooperation with medical societies and other local agencies; and (d) experiments in applying the principle of voluntary insurance or instalment payments in meeting bills for sickness. The Rosenwald Fund provides financial aid for the clinics of the University of Chicago, and has set aside $150,000 toward the operating expenses of a new hospital for patients of moderate means erected by the Massachusetts General Hospital of Boston. This new hospital, the Baker Memorial Building, was erected during the year. The schedule of fees to be charged was initiated by the staff; they are well under that now asked of private patients. The hospital at the request of the staff will act as collecting agent. The rates for private and semi-private rooms will be from $4.00 to $6.50 a day, including nursing service. The Rosenwald Fund contribution is expected to cover the deficit of the first years. Later, it is believed that the Baker Memorial Building will maintain itself on a self-supporting basis, not including interest or depreciation on invested capital.

There were frequent discussions during the year among physicians and others of the economic aspects of medical care. The New York Academy of Medicine in its annual report condemned certain professional abuses, such as the overcharging of patients of small means, and the New York County Medical Society announced a study of the medical and surgical fees charged people belonging to the middle class. In June the National Conference of Social Work devoted a section to the discussion of medical economics, and in October a symposium on that subject was held at the Hospitalization Conference during the Clinical Congress of the American College of Surgeons.

Studies of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, completed or in progress during the year, related to the following matters.

Medical care for 15,000 workers and their families (a survey of the Endicott Johnson Workers Medical Service); the medical facilities of Philadelphia; the medical facilities of Shelby County, Ind.; irregular types of medical practice; the cost of sickness during a 12-month period among various representative population groups, including the incidence of sickness; bases for financial adjustments among hospital patients; the organization of medicine from an economic point of view; and the service of pharmacy. Studies made by other agencies in cooperation with the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care related to: capital investment and income in private practice; capital investment in hospitals and clinics; capital investment and income of dentists in private practice; and existing applications of the insurance principle to illness and accident in the United States.

CONSULT: Davis, Michael M.: *Clinics, Hospitals and Health Centers*, 1927; Folks, Homer: *The Distribution of the Costs of Sickness in the United States* (State Charities Aid Association, New York, Bulletin No. 178), 1928; Moore, Harry H.: *American Medicine and the People's Health*, 1927; Morgan, Gerald: *Public Relief of Sickness*, 1922; and publications of the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, and the Committee on Dispensary Development (United Hospital Fund, 151 Fifth Avenue, New York City).

HARRY H. MOORE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

COUNCILS OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

COUNSELLING. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

COUNTY AND CITY HOMES. Institutions for the housing and care of the indigent poor, carried on under public auspices, are known variously as almshouses, poorhouses, poor farms, county or city homes, and infirmaries. They began to appear among the colonies of the Atlantic seaboard about the year 1700. Prior to that time, and indeed for a century and a half thereafter, the older communities followed a practice of farming out the care of the poor, or "paupers" as they were then usually called, to the highest bidder. This occurred as a rule when the town's paupers were so few that providing a house for them was more expensive than farming them out. The stipend offered by the successful bidder varied according to the amount of service that could be got out of the dependent.

Public homes in their earliest form, and in fact until comparatively recent times, represented the only receptacle for the indoor care of dependents except jails and prisons. In such homes were found idiots, maniacs, drunkards, prostitutes, vagrants, infants born on the premises, dependent widows, and the aged and infirm. Loathsome syphilitics mingled freely with the old and young. The benefits of isolation were in general little understood, and never practiced, except in the dramatic case of smallpox.

The history of homes for the poor has been a story of slow and hesitant classification. The first movement toward the elimination of special classes was through the development of orphan asylums and the boarding out of children removed from the poorhouse. This trend began as early as the first quarter of the last century. The next group to be separately cared for was that of the insane, at the middle of the century; the third, the feeble-minded; and the fourth, quite recently, the able-bodied vagrant. These developments have not proceeded with equal rapidity, and no one of them has yet been satisfactorily accomplished. A further classification, coincident with the up-growth of constructive programs of public health, has been the segregation within the poorhouses of those afflicted with infectious diseases, notably tuberculosis, syphilis, and gonorrhea. In so far as this long process of classification has been effective, it has transformed the city or county home into an infirmary,

chiefly for the aged poor; and with this change of purpose has come a marked change in location and method of construction. The unclassified poor farm called for cattle and a broad expanse of tillable land. With the disappearance of the able-bodied, the farm has shrunk to a truck patch sufficient to provide green vegetables for the inmates. The large general barracks have given way to a central administration section, with rooms and separated dormitory provision for males and females. In large city communities the plant has developed into an extensive hospital for the chronically sick, in which the hospital is the central feature, and the living quarters of well inmates occupy the position of wards for ambulatory patients. In rural areas the number of public charges has so decreased that many jurisdictions have united in the ownership of district institutions. In others, legislation is being sought which will allow such consolidations.

In the treatment of aged public dependents there is a modern tendency to board individuals, especially aged couples, in family homes. This parallels a further tendency, through district nursing service, to provide nursing for aged chronics in their own homes. On the other hand it is likely that the recent extension of the expectancy of life, through medical progress, has intensified the movement toward public infirmaries for the chronically sick by preserving more people for the infirmities of adult life. Some of these become public charges. The marked change in the nature of the poorhouse has brought about material changes in methods of administration. In place of a boss foreman driving large gangs of laborers, and doing little more than keeping his inmates in safe custody, is a superintendent who is more nearly a sympathetic administrator, who provides light recreational tasks as occupational therapeutics and who, if not a physician himself, makes use of medical assistance wherever needed.

The development of social work in the field of relief is largely responsible for the growth of another feature in the modern infirmary, namely, the volunteer county home visitor. These persons, chosen for their general interest in public welfare, visit the institution, and report usually to supervisory boards or to executive officers. In this way they represent the interest of the public in the standard of care provided.

In most communities the position of superintendent of the city or county home is still unclassified, so far as preparation and training are concerned, though in some states it falls under civil service regulations. Of importance in this connection is the fact that in 1929 the New York School of Social Work added a department for the training of institution executives.

Legislation, 1929. The laws passed during the year illustrate the trends noted above. Pennsylvania (No. 475), Tennessee (Ch. 135), Michigan (No. 178), and New York (Ch. 61) authorized the construction of infirmaries for the chronic sick in connection with city or county homes, and Kansas (Ch. 150) and Florida (Ch. 14,221) authorized the discontinuance of poor farms. Arizona, however (Ch. 33), after the manner of a century ago, re-enacted the authorization to its boards of supervisors to sell the care of the poor to the "best responsible bidder."

CONSULT: Bardwell, Francis: *The Adventure of Old Age*, 1926; Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor: *Care of Aged Persons in the United States*, Bulletin No. 489, 1929; Ellwood, C. A.: *The Conditions of the County Almshouses in Missouri* (University of Missouri, Columbia), 1904; Johnson, Alexander: *Almshouse Construction and Management* (Russell Sage Foundation), 1911; Brown, R. M.: *Public Poor Relief in North Carolina*, 1928; Kelso, Robert W.: *History of Public Poor Relief in Massachusetts*, 1922; and United States Census Bureau: *Paupers in Almshouses, 1923*, 1925.

ROBERT W. KELSO

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

COUNTY BOARDS OR DEPARTMENTS OF HEALTH. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH, LOCAL AGENCIES.

COUNTY BOARDS OR DEPARTMENTS OF PUBLIC WELFARE. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES.

COUNTY INFIRMARIES. *See* COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

COUNTY JAILS. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

COURTS OF DOMESTIC RELATIONS. *See* DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS.

CREDIT UNIONS. *See* SMALL LOANS.

CRIME COMMISSIONS in the United States are practically all a product of the period immediately following the World War. Their total number cannot be definitely stated, but evidence points to more than 30. The first was the Chicago Crime Commission, created at the suggestion and under the auspices of the Chicago Association of Commerce in 1919; the second was the Cleveland Association for Criminal Justice, 1921; the third, the Baltimore Criminal Justice Commission, 1922; and the fourth the Missouri Association for Criminal Justice, 1924. The following list of such commissions was compiled by Agnes Thornton, of the Law School of Columbia University, after correspondence with the commissions and other interested bodies:

ACTIVE IN 1929

National or State Commissions

National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement (organized 1929)
National Crime Commission
California Crime Commission
Illinois Association for Criminal Justice
Indiana Committee on Observance and Enforcement of Law
Michigan State Crime Commission
Missouri Association for Criminal Justice
Montana Crime Commission (organized, 1929)
New York State Crime Commission
Rhode Island Criminal Law Advisory Commission
Virginia Commission on Crime and Penal Affairs (organized, 1929)

City Commissions

Baltimore Criminal Justice Commission
Chicago Crime Commission
Cincinnati Regional Crime Commission (organized, 1929)
Cleveland Association for Criminal Justice
Detroit Citizens Crime Commission (organized, 1929)
New York City Police Department Commission on Crime Prevention
Philadelphia Criminal Justice Association

INACTIVE OR DISCONTINUED

National or State Commissions

American Crime Study Commission
Iowa Vigilante Committee
Kansas Crime Commission
Commission to Study Crime in Kentucky
Louisiana Commission for Reform of Criminal Procedure
Minnesota Crime Commission
Nebraska Crime Commission
New Hampshire State Crime Commission
New Jersey State Crime Commission
Pennsylvania Crime Commission

City Commissions

Crime Suppression League of Dallas
Denver Crime Prevention Committee of the Chamber of Commerce
Des Moines Crime Commission
Evanston Crime Commission
Houston League for Suppression of Crime
Loyalty to Law League, Houston
Memphis Crime Commission
Law Enforcement Association, Minneapolis

The variation in powers, purposes, and accomplishments of these crime commissions is great. Some are public and governmental, others are private. In the preceding list all the state and national commissions, except those in Missouri and Illinois, are public. All the city commissions, except the New York City Police Department Commission on Crime Prevention, are private.

Distinction must also be observed between commissions created for the purpose of making a study or a survey of some aspect of the crime situation, and which are therefore temporary, and those created as permanent civic agencies. The first group may be called the survey type, the second the surveillance type. All state or national organizations are survey commissions, although the extent and character of their studies vary widely; all the city commissions, except the one in New York City, are surveillance commissions.

Survey Commissions. The first survey of criminal justice in this country was conducted by the City Council Committee on Crime of Chicago in 1915. The chairman was Alderman Charles E. Merriam. The report included a study of statistics relating to crime in Chicago by Edith Abbott; one on the underlying causes and practical methods for preventing crime by Robert H. Gault, of Northwestern University; and one on criminal conditions by Morgan L. Davies and Fletcher Dobyns. The next survey was made by the Cleveland Foundation in 1922 and was published under the title of *Criminal Justice in Cleveland.* The third was made in 1926 by the Missouri Association for Criminal Justice and published as *The Missouri Crime Survey.* Reports of other noteworthy surveys have been those of the Georgia Department of Public Welfare in 1926; of the New York State Crime Commission in 1927, 1928, and 1929; of the Illinois Association for Criminal Justice, entitled, *The Illinois Crime Survey,* in 1929; and of the Pennsylvania Crime Commission, submitted to the legislature January 1, 1929. While other commissions, notably those of California, Louisiana, Rhode Island, and Minnesota, have published short reports, the Cleveland, Missouri, New York State, and Illinois reports are comprehensive and well-known discussions of various aspects of crime and need not be reviewed here. Other commissions have generally dealt in a rather sketchy way with details of procedure, and for the most part have devoted themselves to the recommendation of legislation. A rather unique contribution, however, was made by the Louisiana survey in 1928. It recommended a complete new criminal code, which was adopted by the legislature with a few changes and is now in operation. An interesting feature of this enactment was provision for the state-wide collection of criminal statistics from all the parishes of the state. One of the noteworthy contributions to the study of crime in 1929 was the first compilation of this material, included in the report of the attorney general of the state.

Included among commissions of the survey type is the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, the appointments to which were announced on May 20, 1929. The members were: George W. Wickersham, chairman; Newton D. Baker, Frank J. Loesch, Roscoe Pound, William I. Grübb, Monte M. Lemann, William S. Kenyon, Kenneth R. Mackintosh, Paul J. McCormick, Henry W. Anderson, and Ada L. Comstock. Max Lowenthal was later made secretary. Congress appropriated $250,000 for the work. The President defined the scope of the Commission's work as including a critical consideration of the entire federal machinery of justice, the whole question of law enforcement and organization of justice, methods of enforcing the Eighteenth Amendment, together with the enforcement of the laws in respect to narcotics, immigration, trade restraint, and every other branch of federal government law enforcement. (For the several subcommittees see the Commission's listing in Part II of this volume.) Experts have been appointed to conduct the research in the different fields. They include August Vollmer, L. J. O'Rourke, Herman Adler, Alfred Bettman, Walter H. Pollack, Zechariah Chafee, Sam Warner, Edith Abbott, Mary van Kleeck, Miriam Van Waters, Goldthwaite Dorr, Sidney P. Simpson, Amos W. W. Woodcock, Joseph C. Hutcheson, Jr., Emma A. Winslow, William M. Brown, Stewart Paton. Hastings H. Hart is chairman of the Advisory Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation and Parole. Miriam Van Waters, under the joint auspices of this Committee and the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, will direct a nation-wide survey of juvenile delinquency.

It would be probably an impossible undertaking to measure the results of the surveys of criminal justice that have been made, and likewise difficult to summarize what they have recorded. A few personal observations based upon a rather intimate connection with many of them is probably the best that can be attempted: (1) The

total amount of information of a scientific and also of a general nature published by these commissions is very important. They have provided students with considerable subject matter for interpretation. Owing, however, to the difficulties attendant upon the publication of such extensive studies, it has been impossible for the surveyors properly to summarize and interpret their own subject matter. (2) Many of the recommendations made have little relation to the subject matter of the reports. This, however, is not new to surveys of criminal justice. It has usually been true of the survey method. The facts collected often do not justify any conclusions or recommendations, and the surveyor is compelled to offer his own, which are largely a guess as to what should be done. (3) Most surveys have been conducted for the purpose of improving the administration of criminal justice in order that more offenders may be arrested and convicted. Thus the objective of most of these surveys has been greater efficiency in dealing with crime. Interesting deviations appear in the reports of the New York Crime Commission which have dealt with the causes of crime, and in the report of the Illinois crime survey.

Surveillance Commissions. The Chicago Crime Commission, established in 1919, has been the most effective of the surveillance type of commissions. Fundamentally the work of such commissions can be described in terms of what the Chicago Commission has been doing during the 10 years of its existence. Its purpose is to watch the whole process of judicial administration in Chicago from the arrest to the conviction of the accused. It is not concerned with the causes of crime or with penal treatment. Every legal step in a case is recorded. Thus the Commission provides a complete check upon all cases passing through the courts. In addition it employs "observers" who are constantly present in the criminal courts to watch for undesirable conditions and to report upon them. From time to time it makes special investigations of prosecutions and issues reports which in a general way describe the conditions which prevail in the criminal courts of the city.

The Cleveland Association for Criminal Justice, established in 1922, is modeled after the Chicago Commission. Its financial support has been much less, however, and the scope of its operations therefore restricted. The Baltimore Criminal Justice Commission operates on a similar basis. For years these three commissions were the only ones of the kind in the country, but in 1929 the Philadelphia Criminal Justice Association was established and similar organizations were planned for Cincinnati and Detroit. The value of crime commissions of this surveillance character cannot be precisely measured, for their results must be sought in the increased efficiency and honesty of the public agencies that administer justice. It is the writer's opinion that improvement in such administration has been significant, and in every way justifies the existence of the agencies.

The National Crime Commission differs from both groups of commissions here discussed. It was established in 1925 by private initiative, and its chief purpose has been to promote and encourage the establishment of crime commissions throughout the country. In addition, however, it has created several committees which have published reports on different aspects of criminal justice.

CONSULT: The reports of commissions, and their pending studies, as referred to in the preceding text.

RAYMOND MOLEY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

CRIPPLED CHILDREN. A crippled child has been variously defined, perhaps best by the New York State Commission for Crippled Children in 1925 as, "one whose activity is, or due to a progressive disease may become, so far restricted by loss, defect,

or deformity of bones or muscles as to reduce normal capacity for education and self-support." Since the federal census makes no record of cripples, the exact number of crippled children in the United States is not known. In 1927 the International Society for Crippled Children, using returns from several large surveys as a basis, estimated the total number of such children under 16 as 349,125, and of those under 21 as about 500,000.

The problem of the cripple is even more a child welfare problem than is the case with the blind. Of the cripples found in the Cleveland survey of 1915, almost one-half (49 per cent) had been disabled before they reached 15 years of age, and over one-third (34 per cent) before they were 5 years old. The New York survey of 1919 found that 63 per cent of the cripples included had been disabled before they were 16 years of age. *See Cleveland Cripple Survey* (Publications of the Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men, Series II, No. 3), 1918, and *Survey of Cripples in New York City* (New York Committee on After Care of Infantile Paralysis Cases), 1920.

Infantile paralysis is the leading cause of orthopedic handicaps among children. Bone and joint tuberculosis, formerly the major cause, now ranks second, or in some surveys third or even fourth. The following percentages for causes of the crippling of 6,507 child patients were obtained in 1924 by combining figures obtained from 18 orthopedic hospitals and 15 convalescent institutions in many states: Infantile paralysis, 27.2; bone and joint tuberculosis, 23.7; congenital deformities, 13.1; rachitic conditions, 8.0; injuries, 4.2; osteomyelitis, 3.6; and other causes, 20.2. Tuberculous crippled children most often need institutional care. Surveys covering also the crippled who are not in institutions often show one-third to one-half who are crippled by infantile paralysis; for example, in Cleveland this accounted for 41 per cent of the cases under 15 years.

That efforts for children already crippled are justified on economic as well as humanitarian grounds is indicated by the large proportion of cured or greatly improved, especially when early treatment has been given. A study made in 1924 by the Gillette State Hospital of Minnesota for Crippled Children showed that out of 3,219 former patients, 37 per cent had been cured, 45 per cent improved, and only 18 per cent not greatly helped.

Prevention of crippling by poliomyelitis will probably be advanced by the laboratory research now being carried on under grants from the Milbank Memorial Fund and other sources at several hospitals and institutions. Prevention of other causative factors has made real progress through improved milk inspection, better dietary and living conditions, and safety campaigns. Much secondary prevention is in the form of early care which seeks to forestall deformity. An important step in any preventive program is to find out where the children are who have had progressive diseases or accidents, and who may become permanently crippled unless proper treatment and care are immediately provided. Accordingly, states often require the registration through the school census of all crippled children of school age; and in a few states, under recent special laws, school census takers are required to report also any crippled children whom they can discover who are under the minimum school age. In five states, furthermore—Wisconsin, New Jersey, Michigan, Missouri, and Ohio—the birth certificate calls for the recording of congenital deformity. In at least one state—Minnesota—any physician knowing of a crippled child is required to report the case to the State Board of Health.

History and Present Status. The first institution in the United States primarily for the care of cripples was the Hospital for the Ruptured and Crippled, opened in New York in 1863. Three years later, in the same city, the New York Orthopædic Dispensary and Hospital was organized. The Home of the Merciful Saviour for Crippled Children, founded in Philadelphia in 1882, was

the first institution offering permanent care. The only existing institution for colored crippled children, the House of St. Michael and All Angels, was opened in Philadelphia in 1887. The Minnesota State Hospital for Crippled Children, established in 1897, was the first state institution for this group. Other state hospitals were founded by New York in 1900; Nebraska in 1905; and Massachusetts in 1907.

In reply to inquiries made by the International Society for Crippled Children in 1924, 92 orthopedic and general hospitals reported 5,381 beds for crippled children, with 51 more not reporting their number of beds; 41 convalescent hospitals and sanatoria reported 2,449 beds for crippled children, with 4 others not reporting as to beds; while 14 custodial institutions reported 656 beds, and 4 did not give capacity. In addition, 15 summer camps for crippled children were reported. This was a great advance in facilities over those found in a study made in 1914 under the auspices of the Russell Sage Foundation. Clinics for diagnosis and follow-up purposes have been developed in many states, including California, Kentucky, Maryland, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Oklahoma, Pennsylvania, and Vermont. Care for some convalescents has been arranged in selected foster homes, especially in Boston.

The past decade has seen a great expansion of work for crippled children by large private organizations. The International Society for Crippled Children, founded in 1921, with Edgar F. Allen as president and Harry H. Howett as secretary, is a clearing-house for 33 state and 2 Canadian provincial societies, besides maintaining affiliations with European agencies. Rotary, Kiwanis, Lions, Optimist, Civitan, and other business men's clubs, the Elks, Shriners and other Masonic groups, and the American Legion are among the strongest supporters of work for crippled children, many of these organizations supporting hospitals and other institutions. The General Federation of Women's Clubs, parent-teacher associations, Junior Leagues, and some visiting nurse associations have special programs for crippled children. In many states public funds—state, county, or city—are provided for such work, and supervision is exercised by the appropriate public officials, this supervision extending usually to work under any private agencies which are in receipt of public funds. State-county care is often provided at state hospitals, frequently associated with the state university, but several states have partially adopted the Ohio decentralized plan, which permits care at public expense, either in the state hospital or in other qualified hospitals.

The first special classes provided for crippled children in the United States were organized for patients in the Hospital for the Ruptured and Crippled, New York, 1863; a day school was opened by the New York Children's Aid Society in 1890; and the Industrial Day School for Crippled and Deformed Children was established in Boston in 1893. Private classes opened in Chicago in 1897 were taken over by the city in 1899, and Cleveland and a few other cities followed, but only recently has expansion been rapid. In 1929, according to a report of the United States Office of Education to be printed in 1930, 86 cities and towns, including 27 in Ohio, reported 10,038 pupils in special schools and classes for crippled children. For these classes the authorities commonly provide free motor bus transportation; buildings with ramps or elevators, or rooms all on one floor; treatment by physiotherapists, and sometimes special equipment such as a tank or pools for treatment under warm water. Academic instruction is much the same as for normal children except that it includes more handwork. Excess costs over the usual per capita expenditures for public school children range from $154 a year in Oklahoma City to $403 in Chicago. Such costs usually are paid wholly or in part from special state funds, with a limit of from $200 to $300 a child annually. High school opportunities are often lacking. A few states make provision

for the schooling of rural children away from home.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Special training for teachers of crippled children is for the most part unobtainable, although an excellent special course is offered at the Michigan State Normal College at Ypsilanti, in cooperation with the University of Michigan Hospital at Ann Arbor. Most staff members in institutions and agencies for cripples are specialists—orthopedists, nurses, physiotherapists, occupational therapists, or teachers. Some follow-up work is carried on by social case workers without medical training; more often it is in the hands of public health nurses, sometimes with social service training. The Indianapolis Foundation, during 1929, provided scholarships allowing one school principal and one physiotherapist to take summer courses at the University of Chicago and at Harvard Medical School, respectively.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year 1929, like the years immediately preceding, showed a growing tendency on the part of the large fraternal orders to promote state programs, placing more of the costs on public funds and leaving supervision more largely to trained, salaried workers. Laymen continued to supply publicity, often financial support, and vocational help with individual cripples, as well as furnishing transportation in their private cars. The most striking event of the year was the first genuinely international convention of the International Society for Crippled Children, held at Geneva, Switzerland. A petition to the League of Nations asked that the secretariat make an international study of preventive measures, care, and training of cripples. Other events of importance were the following: Completion of the new Pennsylvania State Hospital at Elizabethtown and the Eustis Hospital for children at the University of Minnesota; the opening near New York City of a convalescent home for crippled children; the creation of a new division on Special Education in the United States Office of Education; the addition to a Chicago school of a large scale ultra-violet ray plant where patients are treated while using a moving sidewalk; and employment in the Los Angeles and Philadelphia schools of a special vocational guidance and placement worker, such as Chicago has had for several years.

Substantial benefactions in this field were received during the year by institutions or for institutional development in Elyria, Ohio; Schenectady, N. Y.; New York City, Chicago, and Princes' Crossing, near Chicago. During the year state-wide surveys, to learn the whereabouts of crippled children, were made or authorized in Arizona, Illinois, Kansas, Massachusetts, Missouri, New Mexico, and Virginia. A survey in Iowa related particularly to educational needs, one in Montana to infantile paralysis. City surveys were made in Minneapolis, St. Louis, Kansas City, and Philadelphia, the study in the last named city being a part of the hospital and health survey. The United States Children's Bureau also made a study of 10 typical state programs, and a study of special schools and classes for cripples was made for the United States Office of Education.

Legislation, 1929. Arkansas (Act 356) created a permanent state commission and (Act 50) made an existing children's hospital a state agency. Florida (Ch. 13,620) created a state commission with broad powers. Amendments to laws were passed in California, Michigan, New Jersey, and New York. Minnesota (Ch. 277) required a public health record for every child of school age, and also (Ch. 328) required doctors to report physical defects or injuries in children. Kansas (Ch. 256) created a temporary commission to conduct a survey. Wisconsin (Ch. 490) created the Wisconsin Orthopedic Hospital for crippled children and appropriated $300,000 for its erection; it also (Ch. 221) authorized support of academic instruction in hospitals for crippled children from state funds, under supervision of local boards of education.

CONSULT: Reeves, Edith: *Care and Education of Crippled Children*, 1914; Solenberger, Edith Reeves: *Public School Classes for Crippled Children* (Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior), 1918; Keesecker, Ward W.: *Digest of Legislation for Education of Crippled Children* (Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior), 1929; Abt, Henry E.: *The Care, Cure, and Education of the Crippled Child* (International Society for Crippled Children), 1924; Sullivan and Snortum: *Disabled Persons, Their Education and Rehabilitation*, 1926; Howett, Harry H.: *Progress in the Education of Crippled Children* (International Society for Crippled Children), 1930, and "Legislating for the Crippled Children," in *The Crippled Child*, June, 1928; "Cripples" in the *Encyclopædia Britannica* (Fourteenth Edition); and issues of *The Crippled Child* and the *Monthly Letter* (published by the International Society for Crippled Children); *Rehabilitation Review; The Cripple* (London); reports and surveys mentioned in this article: and news bulletins and reports of state societies for crippled children.

EDITH REEVES SOLENBERGER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

CRUELTY TO CHILDREN. *See* CHILD PROTECTION.

DANCE HALLS, PUBLIC. *See* PUBLIC DANCE HALLS.

DANGEROUS TRADES. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

DAY NURSERIES represent a type of care for children of working mothers which ranks midway between institutional care and mothers' pensions. The day nursery movement in America followed in the wake of the French crèches, the first of which was established in Paris in 1844. The first permanent day nursery in the United States was founded in Troy, N. Y., in 1858. The decade from 1905 to 1915—that immediately preceding the development of mothers' pension legislation—witnessed the greatest growth in the numbers of day nurseries in this country. Associations of day nurseries were formed in many of the largest cities; one functions in New England, and another covers the State of New Jersey. Some of these employ trained social workers as executives. The National Federation of Day Nurseries, Inc., founded in 1898, aims to unite all day nurseries in a common body and purpose and to assist them in developing the best possible standards and methods. It publishes a monthly bulletin.

The United States census of children under institutional care on February 1, 1923, shows that there were then in the United States, exclusive of commercial nurseries, approximately 613 day nurseries, caring for 22,822 children. The best available information indicates that there has been an increase since then in both the number and capacity of day nurseries. For the most part day nurseries are financed by private philanthropy. Some, however, are operated by employers and others by public school systems. The most important instance of the last named type is the group of 29 nurseries conducted in Los Angeles. Day nurseries charge nominal fees varying ordinarily from 5 to 25 cents a day for each child cared for. The budgets of nurseries with acceptable standards of care indicate a per capita cost of from 55 cents to $1.60 a day, depending on the geographical location and the program undertaken. The lower rate obtains in day nurseries attached to religious institutions where salaries for all or part of the staff are not included in the budget.

No complete compilation of statutes governing the licensing, inspection, or supervision of day nurseries by state or municipal authorities is available. Many states and most large cities provide for licensing or for inspection, or for both. Such provisions prescribe standards guaranteeing at least a minimum of protection, and where these regulations are uniformly and intelligently applied they insure proper sanitary and health safeguards. The local associations and the National Federation of Day Nurseries also have formulated standards cover-

ing housing; sanitation; fire protection; medical and health supervision; admission requirements in relation to age, physical condition, and parental status; family investigation; parental education; educational program; and personnel as related to the size and ages of the groups under care. Community chests are beginning to require the fulfilment of these standards as a prerequisite for financial support. Since a knowledge of social case work, teaching, public health, mental hygiene, recreation, and home economics are all important in the day nursery field, nurseries of high grade aim to secure executives who have had professional training in one or more of these fields, who can intelligently use specialists functioning in the day nursery and integrate the various activities in an orderly and harmonious fashion.

The entrance of professional workers into this field is one indication of the new evaluation of day nurseries that has come during the past decade. Day nurseries of high standards are now being accepted by family welfare groups—private, public and mothers' aid—as adjuncts to their service when it seems advisable for mothers in families under these organizations to work outside their homes, either temporarily or permanently and for full or part time. Especially are women who are not eligible for mothers' pensions being referred to day nurseries.

Educators specializing in the preschool field are turning to day nurseries for experimental and demonstrating purposes, as well as for opportunity for training teachers in this new field. Progressive day nurseries, on the other hand, are themselves beginning to reach out for this promising new instrument in fundamental child training. *See* Nursery Schools.

Developments and Events, 1929. Day nurseries apparently increased during the year in both number and capacity. In New York City the Heckscher Foundation for children received from August Heckscher the income from $4,000,000 for the establishment of centers to contain day nurseries, dental clinics, and playgrounds. In several cities new and revised city ordinances or sanitary codes, also minimum requirements established by community chests and welfare federations, brought standards of equipment and care to new high levels. Better coordination of the work with the general social progress of the community was indicated by the increased number of case workers employed, and by several studies of intake and costs to determine the adequacy of the service.

An experiment was made in one city with foster home boarding care where the mother has but one child and no other family ties, with foster home daytime care to aid mothers with one or two children, and with subsidies by the nursery to enable mothers of three or more children to remain at home without outside work. In two cities an experiment was made with supervised visiting housekeeper's service furnished by the nursery during the mother's temporary absence at work or during her incapacity. During the year some nurseries added leadership for older children during afterschool hours, nursery schools for preschool groups, and health service for mothers.

Consult: Tyson, Helen G.: *The Day Nursery in Its Community Relations* (Philadelphia Association of Day Nurseries), 1919, and *Standards of Care in Day Nurseries* (Pennsylvania Department of Welfare), 1928; Harley, Winifred C.: *What the Nursery School Contributes to the Day Nursery* (National Federation of Day Nurseries, Inc.), a conference report, 1929; Heagy, Helen La G.: "Philadelphia's First Day Nursery Experiment," in the *Bulletin of the National Federation of Day Nurseries, Inc.*, February, 1930; *Child Welfare Survey of Pittsburgh* (Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania), 1930; *Day Nurseries—Registration of Social Statistics* (Registration of Social Statistics), 1929; and Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Preliminary Report on Part of a Study of Working Mothers in Philadelphia* (under preparation), 1929.

Mary F. Bogue
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For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 19. For national agencies *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 583.

DAY OUTINGS. *See* SUMMER CAMPS AND DAY OUTINGS.

THE DEAF. The term "deaf" is commonly but rather inaccurately applied to three different groups of persons: first, deaf-mutes—those who are entirely or practically entirely without the sense of hearing, and for the most part without normal speech except that acquired through special instruction; second, the hard of hearing, in which group are included persons suffering from many different degrees of impairment of hearing, short of total deafness; and third, the deaf, or those without power of hearing but with good speech—generally those who are deafened after childhood. This article will discuss only the first of these groups. For the special problems presented by the others, *see* THE HARD OF HEARING.

The lack of hearing or of normal speech among deaf-mutes is of congenital or acquired character; in the latter case, the result of some disease or injury to the organs of hearing, occurring early in life, and before speech has been fully acquired. Mutism has no physiological basis; it results from lack of ability to hear, and the consequent inability to imitate the sounds used in speech by other human beings. The deaf-mutes in the United States—from 45,000 to 50,000 in number—constitute very little of a dependency problem, since they are generally able to earn a living in some occupation in which their defect does not prove a serious handicap. Commercial and professional pursuits are for the most part closed to them, however. Their greatest problems result from their social isolation. Deaf-mutes naturally have for their companions, and often closest friends, those who have handicaps similar to their own. In consequence, a sort of clannishness sometimes develops among persons so afflicted. It does little harm, however, on the whole; and the special organizations formed among them are often of much good, especially by way of mutual aid and benefit.

History and Present Status. The first school for the deaf (deaf-mutes) in the United States was founded at Hartford, Conn., in 1817. The first schools were in the hands of private societies organized for the purpose; but before long the state assumed the responsibility of education, and this is now the prevailing policy. The schools which were organized under private auspices, and which receive state pupils, are subsidized by the state and are in fact rather to be designated as semi-public institutions. All states except New Hampshire, Delaware, Nevada, and Wyoming now have special institutions for the education of deaf children; a few have more than one institution. In some states deaf and blind children receive education in the same schools. The tendency today is to give all the institutions a strictly educational rating, without any charitable connotation.

For some time the state institution was the sole means for educating the deaf. Later, day schools were started which have steadily increased in number. The day school is usually a part of the city school system, although often aided by state funds. In connection with such schools there are being created classes for the hard of hearing as well. In some cities there are also private schools for the deaf, for the most part under the auspices of some religious body. The federal government has established Gallaudet College at Washington. It is the only institution in the country for the higher education of the deaf. In all schools for the deaf in the United States there were 17,554 pupils in October, 1929. Of these, 13,239 were in the 64 institutions (including 129 at Gallaudet College); 3,503 at the 114 day schools; and 812 at the 18 private schools. Practically all the schools give much attention to vocational training, some having rather extensive facilities for teaching the trades.

In the instruction of the deaf, both the oral method and the sign language have been used. A constantly increasing number of deaf pupils, however, are being taught

speech and speech reading. The sign language, useful and indispensable as it is in general outside the classroom, is regarded as interfering more or less with progress in acquiring ability to understand correct English—an accomplishment which the deaf child finds very difficult. At the meeting in 1929 of the Conference of Superintendents and Principals of Schools for the Deaf, it was voted to abolish use of the sign language in the classroom. Much importance is being attached to auricular methods of instruction for children who have a remnant of hearing. While developments have been slow, there is little doubt that in the future this form of instruction will play a large part in the teaching of children with hearing defects.

Until within very recent years there has been little organized activity to prevent deafness. It is among the last of physical ailments to receive scientific attention. Under the auspices of the American Otological Society, however, extensive research is now under way into the causes of deafness. Ear clinics in the care of otologists are being set up in connection with classes for hard of hearing children in the public schools, and much may be expected from them in the prevention or checking of incipient deafness.

Of great potential significance to work for the deaf is the establishment of the Coolidge Fund, which seeks an endowment of $2,000,000. This was started under the direction of the Clarke School for the Deaf at Northampton, Mass., and is designed to promote various types of work for the deaf, including research studies. Likewise significant have been the contributions of the National Research Council, under whose auspices have been conducted extensive studies of institutions for the education of the deaf. In February, 1929, an important conference was held at Washington under the auspices of this Council at which a wide range of topics was under discussion, from those relating to the hard of hearing to those relating to deaf-mutes. Special attention was given to the psychological phases of deafness and deaf-mutism, and the general problems of that part of the population having impaired hearing received consideration.

CONSULT: Arnold, Thomas: *The Education of Deaf-Mutes*, 1888; Nitchie, E. B.: *Lip-reading—Principles and Practice*, 1919; Peck, Annetta W. and others: *Ears and the Man*, 1926; Fay, E. A. (editor): *Histories of American Schools for the Deaf* (Volta Bureau), 1893; Ferreri, G.: *American Institutions for the Education of the Deaf*, 1903; Best, Harry: *The Deaf*, 1914; Montague, Margaret P.: *Closed Doors*, 1915; Wright, J. D.: *What the Mother of a Deaf Child Ought to Know*, 1915; Deland, Fred: *Dumb No Longer* (Volta Bureau), 1903; *American Annals of the Deaf* (Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf), and issues of the *American Annals of the Deaf*, and the *Volta Review*.

HARRY BEST

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 583.

DEATH STATISTICS. *See* VITAL AND HEALTH STATISTICS.

DEFECTIVE CHILDREN. *See* MENTAL DEFICIENCY.

DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE. Institutions for the care and training of delinquent boys, usually known as houses of reform, industrial schools, training schools, or reform schools, have been provided by all the states of the Union, as well as by the federal government. Almost all delinquent boys are cared for in institutions under public control, although a few are received in private institutions.

History and Present Status. In the early days of this country boys were confined with old and hardened offenders. In 1822 Edward Livingston urged the establishment of a juvenile reformatory to which children might be sent rather than to state prisons. He said: "It would be more reasonable to put a man in a pest-house to cure him of a headache than to confine a young offender in a penitentiary, organized on the ordinary plan,

in order to effect his reformation." The Society for the Prevention of Pauperism was reorganized about this time as the Society for the Reformation of Juvenile Delinquents, and in 1824 it opened the New York House of Refuge, which was the first separate institution in America or Europe for the care or training of delinquent children. From the beginning the managers of this institution aimed to make it a place of training and correction rather than a place of punishment. The Supreme Court of Pennsylvania in 1838 rendered a decision in which it affirmed that the House of Refuge of Philadelphia was not a prison but a school. In another judicial opinion, rendered in 1835, the court held that the greater or less degree of restraint which was imposed by the superintendent must depend upon circumstances and could not be made the subject of any precise estimate. So long as it was governed by a regard for the best interest of the young, it had perhaps no other limits and must be discretionary. The courts recognized the position of a house of refuge as *parens patriæ*, the common guardian of the community, with the right of control during minority over those committed to its charge. This attitude has continued to the present day.

The latest available figures (*Industrial Schools for Delinquents*, Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, Bulletin No. 10, 1928) show 173 institutions for the training of delinquent boys and girls; fairly complete reports were obtained from 158 of these institutions. Unfortunately the statistics are not in such form that they give separate totals in all instances for boys and for girls. Forty-eight of the state institutions were for girls only, and 11 were for both boys and girls. The total number of inmates reported for 1926–1927 was 84,317. Of this number 65,174 were boys and 19,143 were girls; 72,803 were white and 11,514 were colored. Academic instruction was given to 61,740 inmates, or 74 per cent of the number reported. Some trade or occupation was taught 48,646, or 75 per cent of the total number to whom academic instruction was given. In general, the maximum age at commitment varies from 16 to 18 years of age, and the minimum from 8 to 10 years. The length of stay in different institutions averages from one to two years; in individual cases it may range from a few days to the full period of minority.

No figures are available as to the number of institutions in which psychological and psychiatric services have been introduced. Wherever this has happened, individual study has resulted in efforts at classification and segregation of the feeble-minded and the emotionally unstable, and the provision of training adapted to each. At the present time most training institutions for delinquent boys are conducted on the military plan, but there is a sharp difference of opinion as to its value. Those who favor it contend that it teaches discipline and obedience to law and order, besides making institutions easier to operate. Those opposed to military training claim that it is unnatural and that instead of fitting the boy for later life it creates false standards and makes it harder for him to become adjusted in the community than if he had had training more like that in a normal home.

Most institutions for delinquent boys employ parole officers, but unfortunately it has rarely been possible to provide large enough salaries or sufficiently favorable conditions of work to attract the type of person desirable for this sort of work. Parole officers have rarely been given an opportunity to demonstrate the real possibilities of their positions because they have been so overloaded with cases that adequate supervision was quite out of the question. As a rule the northern, eastern, and far western parts of the United States have given larger appropriations to their institutions, and this has made it possible to secure a more desirable class of employes, and also to provide the services of psychologists and psychiatrists. In most southern states the appropriations are inadequate for conducting institutions with modern standards. The greatest need

in the field today is adequate funds so that people of satisfactory professional training may be induced to accept and retain positions in the institution field.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Until very recently employment in the institutions here described, except in the case of teachers in school departments, has not been conditioned on specific training for the work, since no school offered such training. Courses are now being given, however, at the New York School of Social Work and at the School of Applied Sciences of Western Reserve University. In some places, courses of instruction for officers and employes have been given within the institution and with satisfactory results. Several states require that employment by all state agencies shall be based on civil service examination. This has tended materially to raise standards.

Developments and Events, 1929. Plans were begun during the year for the transfer of the New York House of Refuge from private to public control, and for the building of a new institution at Warwick, about 50 miles northwest of New York City. Denver established a home for employed problem boys. The Shallcross Parental School of Philadelphia increased its capacity from 35 to 90. Ridgewood, a unit of the Louisville and Jefferson County Children's Home, was opened for delinquent colored boys and girls. The same institution extended its social service program by creating three divisions—rehabilitation, foster homes, and mother's aid—in the field department, each division to be staffed by a supervisor and four to seven trained social workers. Hillsboro County, Fla., was authorized to issue bonds of $150,000 for a home for delinquent and dependent children. South Dakota appropriated money for additional cottages at the state training school for boys and girls. Missouri authorized the expenditure of $750,000 for an intermediate reformatory for boys.

CONSULT: Sutherland, Edwin H.: *Criminology*, 1924; Hart, Hastings H.: "The Juvenile Reformatory of the Twentieth Century," in *Proceedings of National Conference of Charities and Correction*, 1905; Barnes, Harry E.: *History of the Penal, Reformatory, and Correctional Institutions of the State of New Jersey*, 1918; Robinson, Louis N.: *Penology in the United States*, 1921; Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, *Industrial Schools for Delinquents* (Bulletin No. 10), 1928; Wines, Frederick H.: *Punishment and Reformation*, 1919; Lewis, Orlando F.: *The Development of American Prisons and Prison Customs*, 1922; Hart, Hastings H.: *Preventive Treatment of Neglected Children*, 1910.

HENLEY V. BASTIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DELINQUENT CHILDREN. *See* DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE; DELINQUENT CHILDREN, FOSTER HOME CARE; DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE; JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION; PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN; and VISITING TEACHERS.

DELINQUENT CHILDREN, FOSTER HOME CARE. Child-caring agencies dealing with neglected and dependent children and having regard for the causes and results of neglect soon learn that there is no clear line between the neglected child and the delinquent child. Not only does neglect result in delinquency, but delinquency is present in many of the so-called neglect or dependency problems. Similarly many problem children are delinquent. Speaking generally, delinquency is a matter of degree; technically speaking, the delinquent child is one who is in the care of the juvenile court or juvenile session for having committed some act which is in violation of a statute or ordinance. Unless otherwise indicated, this article refers to the latter group of children. Except for the statistics, however, most of the discussion pertaining to the delinquent child in foster homes might also be applied to a far larger group of problem children in foster homes. As far as the writer knows, foster home care is nowhere intended to be a

complete substitute for the commitment of delinquent children to institutions. On the basis of what a child needs, a good child guidance clinic may recommend a foster home, institutional care, or probation in a child's own home.

The essentials of good foster home care for delinquent children may be defined as follows: (1) A community willing and able to provide satisfactory foster home care. (Factors of importance to be considered are the general standards of intelligence in the community and the degree of interest it shows in helping children. It may take many years to create the right standards and attitudes.) (2) A child-placing agency willing to pioneer and experiment in the treatment of difficult children. (Such an agency should have a trained staff with knowledge of psychiatric aspects of social work. Thirty delinquent children should be a sufficient strain on the energy and ingenuity of any one visitor.) (3) A child guidance clinic. (4) A friendly attitude on the part of the judge and probation officers in the juvenile court. Other factors which must be considered before placement is determined upon are the age of the child, the type of delinquency of which he is accused, his personality, mentality, family background, and prior experiences and attitudes.

The advantages of foster home care for delinquent children, as opposed to institutional care, are many. By means of life in a family and in a community, the child can be best prepared for adult life in a family and in a community. Foster home placement tends to eliminate the feeling of hatred which a child has when he thinks he is being punished unjustly, for to the child commitment to an institution seems more like punishment than does placement in a foster home. Most delinquent children are in need of guidance rather than punishment. The plan is just because it gives the child a chance to make good under circumstances which every normal child should have, and which through misfortune or neglect of parents or of the community have been denied to him. He can be studied and treated as an individual, and the danger of contagion, especially moral contagion, is minimized. There are, however, many difficulties in following this procedure. It is not easy to discover the right home for the individual child, especially when there are a large number of delinquent children who must be placed. Unwholesome contacts with others in the household and neighborhood do occur and are hard to guard against. Unexpected changes in foster homes or in staff personnel, or interference by a child's own family, may create embarrassment in carrying out a program as planned. In spite of all these difficulties, however, instances in which there have been disastrous results are negligible in number and even children who have committed very serious offenses have been successfully placed.

To be most successful, foster home placement should be paid for, particularly where the child is in school. In free placement the agency has to overcome the tendency of the foster parent to make the child self-supporting when he should not be. Furthermore, when the placing society pays, it is in a stronger position to prescribe details of treatment. The cost of care in foster homes varies with the age and physical condition of the child. Girls with active venereal infections, for instance, require a great deal of care and must be paid for accordingly. Often their board alone costs $3.00 a day. The Children's Aid Association, Boston, reports that in general, when board is paid for delinquent or problem children, the rate ranges from $6.00 to $8.00 a week.

Many agencies which place delinquent children in foster homes are now trying to evaluate their work both qualitatively and quantitatively, not only with reference to the cost in dollars, but also in regard to success and failure. No entirely satisfactory process of evaluation has yet been devised. It is difficult to establish a norm for success, and even when one is accepted, the agency cannot be certain of results until there has been a follow-up study at the expiration of a very substantial period of time.

Delinquent Children, Foster Home Care

The one outstanding study of the foster home plan for delinquent children, *Reconstructing Behavior in Youth*, by Healy, Bronner, Baylor, and Murphy, was published in 1929. This was an analysis of 501 unselected children, all of them problem or delinquency cases for whom foster home care had been provided by child-placing agencies in Massachusetts and other New England states. The study showed that among the problem children, many of whom were officially delinquent, foster home care had been helpful for 70 per cent. For those who were mentally or emotionally abnormal, especially those who presented personality and habit problems and actual delinquency, the percentage of success was 45, while for the normal children in the group the percentage of success was 90.

Foster home care is used as a method of treatment for delinquent children by most of the child-caring agencies in New England. As far as known to the writer, the only other cities using this plan are Pittsburgh, Los Angeles, Hartford, Cleveland, Minneapolis, St. Louis, Rochester, and Washington. The state departments of public welfare in Massachusetts and Virginia have also made some placements of this type. During the last decade a special service for study and placement of delinquent and problem children has been developed by the New England Home for Little Wanderers, of Boston, and by the Whaley Memorial Home of Flint, Mich. This combines the use of a small institution as a study home for diagnosis with the use of foster homes for care and treatment. The organizations which have adopted this plan find that it provides opportunity for the more intimate study by trained staff members which certain children especially need. In the town of Sharon, Mass., there is a foster home where a study of the development of four problem children (not officially delinquent) is being carried on by a foster mother and her assistant, who are psychiatric social workers. The children in this experimental foster home are under the supervision of a visitor from the Children's Mission to Children of Boston.

In addition to providing foster homes for the care of delinquent children placed on probation by the juvenile court, the Boston Children's Aid Association has developed a system of temporary detention care in foster homes for children whose cases have not been finally disposed of by the juvenile court of that city. In the course of a year about 100 children are served in this way. Almost all other juvenile court children are allowed to go to their own homes pending disposition. Boston has no congregate house of detention. As far as known to the writer, the only other communities using foster homes for the temporary detention care of delinquent children are Worcester, Wilkes-Barre, Harrisburg, Minneapolis, St. Louis, Los Angeles, and Charleston, S. C. To these should be added the state departments responsible for child protection in Massachusetts, Virginia, and Alabama. In a report covering the year 1927 the federal Children's Bureau (Publication No. 195), states that 19 of 44 cities, ranging from 25,000 to 100,000 in population, used boarding homes for the temporary detention care of delinquent, dependent, and neglected children. Six cities reported the use of boarding homes for delinquent children only. Forty-two juvenile courts reported that 69 delinquent children were given temporary detention care in boarding homes. The total number of delinquent children involved in this report was 28,387, about half of whom did not need any form of detention care. See DETENTION HOMES.

CONSULT: Healy, William, and others: *Reconstructing Behavior in Youth*, 1929; Lenroot, Katharine F.: "Progressive Methods of Care of Children Pending Juvenile Court Hearing," in *Proceedings of National Conference of Social Work*, 1926; Eliot, T. D.: "Unofficial Treatment of Children Quasi-Delinquent" (report of the Committee on Juvenile Courts) in *Proceedings of National Probation Association*, 1922; Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Juvenile Court Statistics* (Publication No. 195), 1927, and *Juvenile Court Statistics* (Publication No.

200), 1928; Cabot, Frederick P.: "The Detention of Children as a Part of Treatment," in *The Child, The Clinic and The Court*, by Jane Addams and others, 1925.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE. Training schools for delinquent girls are maintained by most states out of public funds, and are under the supervision of state departments of public welfare. The names under which the schools are conducted vary, but there is a growing tendency to use names which do not hint at the reformatory idea. The terms "State School for Girls" or "State Training School for Girls" are most common, but less formal names, such as "Montrose School for Girls," "Home School for Girls," and so forth, are also being used with happy results.

History and Present Status. In the early part of the nineteenth century there came an awakening of the public conscience with regard to the problem of juvenile delinquency and the need of training delinquent, incorrigible, psychopathic and other so-called "unfortunate" boys and girls away from their homes. Special provision for girls in a building by themselves was first made in the House of Refuge of New York toward the end of 1825. All of the earliest institutions were begun under private auspices and were controlled by large boards of managers made up of representative people. The first school in the United States for girls only was organized in Lancaster, Mass., in 1854.

Since that time there has been a marked change in the purposes of these institutions. The original purpose was to provide refuge and protection, but soon the idea of punishment emerged and this end was attained by repression and often cruel discipline. Silence was insisted upon at work, at meals, and wherever it could be imposed. Unnatural rules and regulations developed. Little attention was paid to physical or recreational needs. Honor systems were unknown, the girls were constantly watched lest they run away, and the atmosphere was one of constant suspicion. Although there are still training schools for girls which are extremely institutional and repressive and administered without much vision or imagination, there are also a number in which constant experimentation is under way to develop new and wiser methods of procedure far removed from the old ideas. Many facts are now being recognized which were formerly completely ignored; as, for instance, that girls who have abused their freedom cannot be taught to use it wisely unless it is given to them within the institution, where they can develop a sense of responsibility. The necessity for maintaining law and order still exists, but self-control is being taught through wiser discipline, through improved physical care, education, sports, and so forth, and a real effort is being made to lift the burden of loss of liberty from the shoulders of young people who feel it very keenly.

There are now in the United States 48 state training schools for girls and 11 for both boys and girls. In most instances, except in the New England States, Negro and white girls are housed in separate cottages. In some institutions they share social and school activities, and in others their programs are separate. Populations vary from 50 or 60 to 500 or over. Many authorities believe that 250 is as large a number as any institution of this type should have.

The average time spent within institutions varies from 18 months to two years, although in some states it is possible for a girl to remain as long as 13 years. The use of practical, yet inspirational, academic courses is growing, so that the interest of a girl of any school grade may be awakened and satisfied. Also vocational training is developing, in so far as it can be given in a short period of time. This includes dressmaking, commercial subjects, hairdressing and beauty parlor courses, handcraft and design, home nursing, and so forth. Such a program must

necessarily be elastic and adaptable, and cannot follow a prescribed course year after year because of varying abilities in the girls committed.

Parole is in general use after training within the institution has prepared the girl for a larger measure of freedom. At first haltingly undertaken, with little faith in its efficacy, it has grown to be the inspirational foundation for the entire institution. Every girl knows from the start that she can be paroled, and her training is planned toward that end. Opinions differ as to the best methods of parole, but there is agreement as to the vital necessity of full social histories upon which to base plans, and very careful supervision and follow-up of all who are paroled. The tendency to use training schools as dumping grounds for all sorts of problem children, many of whom should be handled differently, often makes good parole work difficult. Psychiatric clinic service seems not as yet to have proved of very great value to institutions for delinquent girls. Acceptance of the principles of mental hygiene has far outgrown the number of trained persons able to apply them; and it will probably be some time before girls' training schools will benefit from these new ideas as they should.

Because of more and better probation work (pre-institutional care) and possibly also because of the trend of the times, girls now committed to training schools appear to be harder to control than formerly and of less promising material. They are more given to emotional instability, psychoses, and other mental abnormalities. Throughout the country institutions for the care of mental defectives are overcrowded and usually have long waiting lists; as a result, a large proportion of the delinquent girls whom training schools receive and care for are mental defectives. These changes in the types of girls committed may require marked alterations in the scheme of care provided by the institutions. Whatever the causes, the training schools are at present going through a difficult period of adjustment.

Supervision by state welfare departments has both advantages and drawbacks. Public officials have sometimes neither time nor inclination to study and understand the situation in which the training schools find themselves. When well-trained inspectors are employed, however, their visits can be most helpful. The most obvious needs in the field of modern institutional care for delinquent girls are better trained superintendents, less haphazard methods of securing staff members, more funds for maintenance, which would make higher salaries possible, less political interference, and more interest from the intelligent public, which has many theories at present but little practical knowledge of the situation.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Until very recently no definite effort has been made to train institutional workers outside the institutions themselves. Some superintendents prefer to train their own staffs rather than to employ the so-called "institution rounders"—persons who drift aimlessly from one school to another. Civil service, in theory so excellent, can work great hardship because of its inflexibility and has done so in many instances. One does not necessarily prove one's ability to train and teach delinquent girls acceptably by passing an examination, and training school officials often spend much time trying to secure satisfactory workers in spite of civil service laws. Within the past few years good training courses for institutional employes have been started in Western Reserve University and at the Children's Village, Dobbs Ferry-on-Hudson, N. Y. The latter was transferred during 1929 to the New York School of Social Work. *See* Education for Social Work.

There has never been a national organization in this field which the majority of superintendents have felt willing to join in order to receive inspiration and help in their problems. Many feel that training schools for girls should not be connected in any way with prison associations, either local or national.

The National Conference of Juvenile Agencies, now separated from the National Prison Congress, may offer the facilities needed. A movement is on foot to bring the superintendents together once a year at that conference to talk over their very special problems, and this gives promise of success.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year St. Louis added a cottage for colored girls to the institution at Meramee Hills, Mo. Ohio began to develop a clearing house for all children sent to the juvenile courts, and California made plans for 24-hour elementary schools. During 1929 also a study of the institutional care of delinquent girls was in progress, made by the United States Children's Bureau, and local studies were made by the Pittsburgh Federation of Social Agencies and the Pennsylvania State Department of Public Welfare. Detroit made a survey of the care of delinquent children in that city, and the National Catholic Welfare Conference made a study of the New York Catholic Protectory.

Legislation, 1929. Appropriations for additional buildings were made during the year by the legislatures of Arkansas, Connecticut, South Dakota, Florida, Tennessee, and Wisconsin. West Virginia (Ch. 10) made provision for the hospitalization of girls infected with venereal diseases, Florida by Chapter 14,483 appropriated $10,000 for a cottage for colored girls and by another act authorized a bond issue of $150,000 by Hillsboro County for the establishment of an industrial home in that County for dependent and delinquent children.

CONSULT: Reeves, Margaret: *Training Schools for Delinquent Girls*, 1929; Lee and Kenworthy: *Mental Hygiene and Social Work* (particularly Part One, Chapter II, The Content of Child Guidance—Parent and Child), 1929; Addams, Jane, and others, *The Child, The Clinic, and The Court*, 1925; Jamison, A. T., *The Institution for Children* (Columbia, S. C., Book Depository), 1923; Joint Committee on Methods of Preventing Delinquency: *Three Problem Children—Narratives from a Child Guidance Clinic*, 1926; Van Waters, Miriam: *Youth in Conflict*, 1926.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DENTAL HYGIENE. *See* MOUTH HYGIENE.

DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN. The term "dependent children" has a variety of meanings in the statutes of the various states and in general usage. For the purpose of this article dependent children are those who have lost one or both parents, or whose parents or guardians are unable to support them or have surrendered them legally or informally for temporary or permanent care to a social agency, public or private. While dependent children may be cared for in their own homes, either by general family welfare agencies or relief societies, or by agencies which administer mothers' aid laws, reference is made here only to those for whom application is made to an organization which provides care either in an institution or in foster homes, and when in the latter, with compensation or for free care or for adoption. *See* MOTHERS' AID and FAMILY WELFARE WORK.

In most of the states neglected children are not separately classified in the statutes either by definition or in the procedure or disposition specified for them. In good practice, however, a distinction exists, even in such states as do not separately define neglect, between the clearly destitute dependent whom parents or guardians cannot support and ask to be provided for and the clearly neglected dependent who suffers because the parents or guardians are derelict in their duty. *See* CHILD PROTECTION. When neglected children have been removed from their parents or guardians, they become dependent children as far as methods of care outside of their own homes is concerned.

Dependent and Neglected Children

In most of the states dependent children who are to be received either into public care or into private care for financial reimbursement from public funds or for their disposition are committed by juvenile courts or courts having juvenile jurisdiction. In states like Massachusetts and New York, where dependent and neglected children are clearly discriminated in the law, the commitment of dependent children is always made by poor-law officials or departments of public welfare. Sentiment in favor of the latter procedure seems to be growing stronger in other states.

History. In the early history of America dependent children were either cared for by outdoor relief given in their own homes or in almshouses with or without the other members of their families. They were also placed out with families either on indenture or for apprenticeship. The indenture was in accordance with statutory law, which laid both duties and responsibilities upon child and master, providing penalties for derelictions, and obligating the master to discharge the child at from 18 to 21 years of age with certain gifts, such as a suit of clothes and perhaps the sum of 50 dollars, in partial compensation for the child's services. States still have these laws on their statute books, but the development of the factory system, the lack of home work, the greater need of skilled service, and the lengthening period of the child's education all undermined the system of indenture long before it became a dead letter. The greatest objection to the indenture system was that its philosophy of child care was based on economic service, and his protection and training were incidental rather than basic.

Coincident with the development of the placement of children came the first institutions for children. The first one was founded in 1729 in New Orleans in connection with the Ursuline Convent, when it became necessary to provide for a group of children orphaned by Indian massacres. In 1740 the Bethesda Orphanage in Savannah, an institution for orphan boys, was founded by George Whitefield. Out of the 1,558 institutions caring for children reporting for the United States census of *Children Under Institutional Care, 1923,* only eight had been established before 1800. Ninety-three were organized during the first half of the nineteenth century, and of these 41 were in the South. A great increase in the number of institutions came immediately after the Civil War, but many of these, built in the aftermath of the war fervor, have gone out of existence.

All through the first half of the nineteenth century child placing on indenture or apprenticeship came to be a well-recognized procedure by public officials in relieving the public of the cost of caring for dependent children. The first private agency to undertake child placing as its primary function was the Children's Aid Society of the City of New York, organized in 1853, when Charles Loring Brace began his work of sheltering waifs taken from the streets of New York. They were at first placed in suitable farm families near New York, but as the years passed and it became harder to find suitable farm homes nearby, they were sent into more distant states, even west of the Missouri River. In 1929 this method was finally abandoned by this society as a result of the development of other facilities nearer by for the care of these children.

In 1883 the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society was organized. This marked the beginning of a national movement to place a children's home society with state-wide jurisdiction in every state, with a national society to give general direction to their work. It was the main purpose of these organizations to place homeless, dependent children for adoption in childless families. This work has always had a strong evangelical flavor, although not under specific church auspices.

Thirty-six states have at one time or other had children's home societies. The national agency no longer exercises direction and the various societies are entirely independent. Twenty-eight reported to the 1923 census.

A number of these have departed in function and form of organization from the original plan. Organized to use foster homes, many have added to their equipment institutions for the permanent care of children.

In 1866 Massachusetts gathered its children of unsettled families from the state almshouses at Bridgewater and Tewksbury into the State Almshouse at Monson, and the latter was declared to be the Massachusetts State Primary School. From this the children were placed out and a visiting agent was appointed to visit all children so cared for. This was the beginning of the plan for direct foster home care of its dependent children by the Commonwealth of Massachusetts. In 1879 the visiting of these children was assigned to the State Board of Health, Lunacy, and Charity, the forerunner of the Division of Child Guardianship of the Department of Public Welfare. By 1894 Massachusetts had 1,459 children in boarding homes, and the following year the Primary School at Monson was abandoned.

Meanwhile the Boston Children's Aid Society, founded in 1863, was becoming an influential factor in foster home care. In 1883, Charles W. Birtwell, then just out of Harvard, became its general secretary. His analytical mind led him to study the peculiar needs of children coming to the Society's attention, in order that each child might be placed in the kind of home which his capabilities and his limitations demanded. Thus began the first systematic process of finding homes for children instead of children for homes. This analytical process of child care has affected the whole field of children's work and has been greatly extended by means of child guidance clinics and the services of individual psychologists and psychiatrists, which are now used by all progressive children's institutions and agencies.

In 1874 Michigan set up a state school—thus following Massachusetts, but with a more inclusive plan by accepting all dependent children in need of care. These were to remain for a temporary period previous to placement. Minnesota, Wisconsin, and 18 other states accepted this plan. It has, however, always suffered in that the institution has loomed large, while the service for home-finding and supervision has been inadequate. Free homes have been used almost exclusively, but have met children's needs with decreasing success. The result has been that children have had inadequate protection, they have required frequent replacement, they have been left in the institution too long, and the institution has grown in size and importance, while foster home care has languished.

But county homes have had no better success to meet the needs. Ohio in 1866 authorized the establishment of a children's home in every county. The enabling act included the feature of placing out. Connecticut and Indiana followed after Ohio. This plan has likewise failed because the children are likely to remain in the county home until parent or foster parent comes after them. Inadequate provision for placement service seems to accompany this program also. Indiana and Connecticut have given the state departments authority to place the children out, but adequate facilities at the center are not provided.

At present only three states—Mississippi, Nevada, and Utah—are without supervisory boards or departments of public welfare, although they differ greatly in their functions as they relate to child care. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES. Massachusetts has an extensive program of direct child care with very limited powers for the supervision of private agencies and institutions, and New York has a limited program of direct child care with extensive powers for supervision of private agencies and institutions, while Alabama has extensive programs in both fields.

The supervision of private child care agencies, when fully developed, generally includes the approval of petitions for incorporation of institutions or agencies both as to need and adequacy, their annual licensing, and their periodical inspection, including a finan-

cial audit unless this has already been made by some competent person or agency. There is a tendency at present to emphasize the importance of control at the time of incorporation and an educational inspection each year, but to lay less stress on licensing when there is periodical inspection.

In the older states especially, private agencies and institutions for the care of children preceded the development of public systems whether by the state, county, or municipal government. When the question of support for these agencies became a pressing one, many asked the public authorities to provide a part of the cost. These institutions or agencies generally have reputable and influential men and women on their boards of managers whose services express devotion if not always special knowledge and skill. The general hesitation of citizens to trust public authorities with social service has led to an extensive development of public support of private agencies or subsidies, the extent of whose use and influence in America has never been completely fathomed. Such subsidies to children's organizations are very numerous. They are of two forms, the payment per capita for services rendered, as in New York and California, and the payment of lump sums to the organizations' budgets, as in Maryland and Pennsylvania. While in the second form of payment the amount is supposed to approximate the cost of service rendered, it is not actually in proportion to the number of children previously aided or to be aided in the current year.

There is available testimony that would seem to show that either form of subsidy is apt to lead to influences being used in the legislature or body appropriating the funds which have no bearing upon the need for the agency or the quality of service rendered by it. It has also been observed in certain instances that subsidies to private children's agencies have led them to be less ready to act as friendly but fearless critics of governmental action where the protection of children is involved, for fear that by voicing frank criticisms appropriations may be endangered.

Massachusetts in 1913 passed a constitutional amendment forbidding the payment of public money to private organizations. New York in 1874 passed a similar amendment forbidding subsidies from the state treasury, but counties and municipalities of New York have no such prohibition, and per capita payments are extensively and generously made.

In 1909 President Roosevelt called a White House Conference on Dependent Children. About 200 persons, mostly engaged in foster home care, gathered in Washington for two days and adopted resolutions which emphasized the value of family life for the bringing up of children. Out of this movement came the establishment of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor, with Julia Lathrop as its first Chief. Another result, although coming in a more indirect way, was the nation-wide movement for widows' pensions and mothers' aid. The extent of this influence is best measured by the fact that probably as many dependent children are now aided in their homes as are aided away from home, all since 1911, when the first law was enacted. *See* MOTHERS' AID. The second White House Conference, called by President Wilson in 1919, did not limit its interest to dependent children, but it once more called the nation's attention to the children in need of special care. A third White House Conference was announced in 1929, to be held in November, 1930. The President has again broadened the scope of the body. Ample time has been allowed for organization, the making of brief studies, the gathering of available data, and the making of preliminary reports.

The work of this Conference is divided into four sections: I. Medical Service; II. Public Health Service and Administration; III. Education and Training; and IV. The Handicapped, including all children in need of special care. These sections are divided into 17 committees, and the assistance of approximately 800 persons, mostly specialists

in their fields, has been enlisted. (See the listing of the Conference in Part II.) Out of this Conference is likely to come a summary of what is known about child care, with recommendations for a wider application of its principles.

The Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor began its work in 1912. While by nature of the federal constitution the scope of the Bureau's activity is limited to study, investigation, and educational publicity, its work and reports have had a large influence on the care of the dependent children in many states. Under its auspices standards for both foster home and institutional care have been developed which have had wide acceptance.

In 1915 there was organized a Bureau for the Exchange of Information Among Child-Helping Organizations, which in 1920 became the Child Welfare League of America, with an office in New York equipped for field service to its member organizations. At first the membership included only agencies serving children either in their own homes or in foster homes, but in 1923 the scope of the organization was broadened, institutions were accepted into membership, and from that time on field service has been actively rendered to institutions as well as to foster home and other children's organizations.

Besides service to member societies, which are received on the basis of having acquired acceptable standards, the League also has rendered extensive service through the examination of the work of other agencies, with recommendations for their improvement, and through surveys of child welfare programs in various cities for the purpose of shaping and reshaping community plans in children's work.

Although boarding home care is not a recent development, since it has been in vogue for many years in Great Britain and on the continent of Europe, as well as in the eastern part of the United States, it has had its largest development in this country during the last decade. In the census of *Children Under Institutional Care, 1923,* no children were reported cared for in boarding family homes in the states of Arkansas, Idaho, Montana, Oklahoma, South Dakota, and Tennessee. In 16 other states the amount of boarding home care did not rise to one per cent of the whole of child care, and in 10 additional states boarding home care was only five per cent of the total amount of child care. The states which used boarding home care for as much as 10 per cent of the total amount of child care were, in order of volume, Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maine, Michigan, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and the District of Columbia. A new census taken now would show substantial development in various parts of the country. There is also apparent a shrinkage in the amount of free home placement, and the number of children placed for adoption after they have reached the age of four seems to be materially reduced. Placement for adoption of infants and children under four is probably more extensively carried on than previously.

One of the most important developments in the field of child care during the last two decades is the more careful study of the intake of child-placing agencies and child-caring institutions. The application of case work principles and the emphasis upon the use of the child's own home when it can be maintained—through mothers' aid, through other financial subsidies, or through housekeeper service—have had the effect in certain cities of reducing the number of children both in institutions and in foster home agencies. Both these forms of organization are equipping themselves for family adjustment work and have been rendering mothers' aid through their own funds when necessary.

Institutions, from the nature of their work, sooner or later had to find an outlet for their children. When they had no homes of their own to go back to, some form of placement had to be undertaken. Generally no systematic provision was made for this. The examination of the foster home and the supervision of the child was usually inci-

dental and often lacking. With the application of case work principles this is being changed in a number of places. Institutions are equipping themselves with home-finding and supervisory staff, the stay in the institution has become shorter, and systematic work is undertaken for the adjustment of the child into community life as soon as suitable opportunities present themselves.

One of the most important developments in institutional care has been the increasing use of small units for the care of children. This is generally known as the cottage plan. A generation ago a unit of 25 children under one roof was considered advantageous. Sometimes a husband and wife were installed in charge of such cottages; generally, however, a cottage mother and an assistant were in charge. More recently units of 12 to 15 have come to be considered more favorably. Carson College for Orphan Girls, at Flourtown, Pa., and the Methodist Children's Home Society of Michigan, at Detroit, have some cottage units for nine children each. In smaller units only the cottage mother is needed for the children's supervision.

Child guidance clinics and other forms of psychiatric social work have come into use in connection with the care of children during the past decade. It may not be necessary to have every child coming to the attention of an institution or child-placing agency examined by a psychiatrist, but psychometric examinations are now almost universal among progressive child-caring agencies and institutions, and when conduct or placement difficulties arise, a full psychiatric study many times provides the data upon which a better adjustment is made.

An important modification of this service is found in the development of the diagnostic study home. The first of these to come into use was equipped by the New England Home for Little Wanderers, Boston. This organization, established in 1865, had always had a receiving home from which it placed its children in accordance with the methods in vogue, often at long range, and some of them as far away as the central states. About 15 years ago it equipped itself with a building providing comfortably for about 40 children for temporary shelter and study and for their medical, psychological, and psychiatric examinations when all of these were necessary, in order that a thorough diagnosis of the difficulty might be obtained and a better adjustment made. The diagnostic service of this institution is made available to children's agencies of other cities and states of New England, when they feel the need for a careful, scientific study of any of their wards. The wards of the New England Home for Little Wanderers are as rapidly as possible adjusted back into their own homes or into foster homes or other institutions, in accordance with the best plan that may be made. Besides the social staff for investigation, home-finding, and follow-up, and the usual institutional staff, the equipment includes a pediatrician, a psychologist, and a psychiatrist. This diagnostic study home plan has had considerable influence on the development of other institutions. The Children's Community Center of The New Haven Orphan Asylum has a similar equipment, as has the Whaley Memorial Home in Flint, Mich. Other institutions of a similar character are at present being equipped.

Many children's institutions and some child-placing agencies have acquired substantial endowments either by will or by gift. The value of an endowment for the stabilizing of the finances of an enterprise for the care of dependent children is not to be denied. If the organization must every year raise the total amount of funds needed to maintain it, either directly from the public or through the instrumentality of a community chest, the uncertainty of whether or not the money will be raised will constantly absorb much time of the executive and of the board of directors that can be used to better advantage. On the other hand, there are many illustrations that might be cited to prove that an endowment when it is the principal financial resource of an organization has a tendency to make the

board less energetic and less progressive in their reception of new ideas for service. Organizations and institutions, therefore, should be encouraged to seek endowments that will provide a substantial part, but perhaps not to exceed two-thirds of the necessary annual budgets, but always under conditions that will leave the board of trustees with the authority to turn the gifts themselves or the income from endowments to new uses when the use for which the money has been given is either no longer needed or is no longer in accord with the best method in child care.

Present Status. Institutions for the care of children or of adults and children were on February 1, 1923, reported as numbering 1,558. Although many of them are called orphanages, orphans' homes or orphan asylums, they rarely have as many as 10 per cent of full orphans, and the remaining number is divided between those having one parent living and those having both parents living, with the larger number usually in the latter class. It is not surprising that the number of full orphans is small, because if they have any reasonable measure of attractiveness in physical and mental qualities they are eagerly sought by childless families. The fact that the institutions are full of children with at least one parent living lays upon them the responsibility for making reasonable efforts to return the children to their families whenever this seems feasible.

From the standpoint of the kind of service rendered, institutions for dependent children divide themselves into four classes: (1) Temporary or receiving homes. These are often though not always attached to agencies whose principal function is foster home care. They are intended primarily for shelter and acquaintanceship which will make it possible to place the child more advantageously in accordance with his needs. To them also a child is returned when replacement is necessary and a suitable home does not immediately present itself. (2) Institutions for permanent care. This number is shrinking somewhat because a certain group of institutions formerly in this class having become convinced that if long-time care is necessary the child should be placed in a free or boarding home whenever possible, now belong to the first class. There is no clear-cut division which separates these two classes, except the general attitude of the Board of Managers in expecting in this class to keep the child as long as he is likely to require care away from his own family. At present there is a tendency noticeable to change the name of certain institutions of this group, so that they are classed as schools, in part because they lay additional emphasis upon the quality of education provided, and in part to take away some of the stigma which the older names are believed to lay upon the child. Such a change of name does not change the character of the problems involved as far as schools provide for dependent children. (3) Institutions to meet special needs. This group is not yet large but is growing in number. There is a marked tendency for institutions of a generalized character to equip themselves for special vocational training for adolescent groups of either boys or girls and for other special purposes. When the physical and personnel equipment meets special needs this development is highly desirable. (4) Diagnostic study homes. These have already been discussed. Some of the more generalized institutions of class one or two are reshaping themselves to fall into this class.

Of the total of 1,558 institutions for dependent children or for adults and children reported in 1923, 408 were supervised or conducted by Protestant denominations, 371 by the Roman Catholic church, 37 were under Jewish auspices, 624 were managed or supervised by non-sectarian private corporations, 92 were under county supervision, and 26 under state supervision. On February 1, 1923, 51,035 children were reported as in free family homes, 22,243 in boarding family homes, and 4,933 were reported as not classified. Many of these last were under supervision in their own homes. In

institutions of various types there were 140,312 children, making a total of 218,523, or 198 dependent children away from their own homes on that date per 100,000 of the population.

The Census Bureau does not furnish a complete statement of public or private institutions which undertake placement work nor of the number of children which these various institutions have placed. Only a small number of institutions, 22, have sought and so far have been admitted into membership of the Child Welfare League of America, while the number of member agencies doing child placing (including some of the institutions previously counted) is 103. This figure also includes 13 agencies which combine protective work with placement work.

Child placing until recently was considered competitive with institutional care, and in certain quarters is still thought of in this way, but a more modern program considers them supplementary to each other. The allocation of children who must be provided for away from their own homes is a subject to which much thought is being given by children's workers, and is still to a considerable degree controversial. In general it may be said that infants and young children up to the age of six thrive best in foster homes. Children above the age of six, when removed from their homes, present more difficulties for placement and are generally found placed in institutions for temporary care until they can return home or until a suitable foster home has been provided. In many communities these children, when of ordinary intelligence and conduct, make up the bulk of the populations of institutions for permanent care. In communities where boarding-home care has been well developed, normal children above the age of six are also satisfactorily placed in boarding homes. Children of any age who show physical, mental, or conduct difficulties, whether in institutions or in the community, seem to respond well to foster home care. Institutions that equip themselves for the purpose of providing special educational and vocational needs are emphasizing the value of such advantages for adolescent children.

The care of dependent children, according to the United States census report already referred to, still rests in large measure in private hands. In the 20 central western states which have state schools, and in Connecticut, Indiana, and Ohio, which have county homes, public care has made a substantial beginning. In states like Alabama, Minnesota, and North Carolina the state departments have attached to them administrative county units in either all or most of their counties, and in Iowa, Missouri, Virginia, and a few other states other public units of service have been organized. In Alabama and Minnesota this work is conducted under the auspices of county child welfare boards, while in the other states the county boards have a broader purpose, usually including family relief, probation, and other welfare services.

A complete public service to children cannot be satisfactorily rendered from one center except in a few of the smaller states. The county lends itself well as an administrative unit, particularly when it is under the general direction of the State Department of Public Welfare and when its staff has been chosen because of special fitness for the task. In the larger states public and private services for dependent children will both be needed, but in the smaller cities and towns and in the rural districts the care of dependent children will depend in the immediate future and probably for all time on the quality of public service that is available.

New Emphases. In modern institutional care the following points are particularly stressed: (1) The use of small cottages to house the children; (2) the application of social service so that care in the institution becomes a part of the case work process; (3) a health program that will integrate a service of isolation, periodical physical examinations, and preventive follow-up treatment; (4) a recreational program so that

the child may learn the elements of team work, and may also have contacts through it with the world outside of the institution; (5) use of the extra-mural schools for additional normal community contacts; (6) a trained personnel at every point.

The foster home program meanwhile emphasizes especially the following points: (1) The preservation of the child's own home by additional relief or service if necessary; (2) a periodical examination of the child, preferably every six months, and the attendant preventive follow-up treatment; (3) home finding that aims to place a child where he will have just the influence most needed for him as an individual; (4) supervision that is as little inspectional as is necessary and stimulates foster parents to assume their full responsibility toward the child.

The development of child guidance clinics and other mental hygiene services is extending the use of foster homes to children who can hardly be considered dependent, and psychiatrists are frequently recommending temporary foster home care for children, even when there is neither dependence nor neglect, if one or more members of the family, sometimes the parents themselves, interfere with the child's normal development.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. The work for dependent children, whether through foster home or institutional care, requires special training. Schools of social work have come to recognize this, and a number of them, like the New York, Boston, Philadelphia, Cleveland, Chicago, St. Louis, and other schools, are giving special courses for training in children's work and provide field work under the supervision of experienced children's workers. The New York, Cleveland, and Chicago schools have also established courses for the training of institution executives and other workers.

The demand for social workers in children's institutions or agencies far outstrips the number that have been trained for such service by schools of social work, and it is therefore still necessary for many children's agencies, particularly those located in cities where there are no schools of social work, to train some or all of their own workers. In a few agencies the apprenticeship training given is carefully planned and supervised.

Several states, like Alabama and North Carolina, have standardized requirements for employment as executives of their county child welfare boards. Civil service examinations, like those given in Massachusetts and Ohio, have only partially taken cognizance of special training in foster home or institutional care. Many state departments have held or encouraged the holding of institutes for the training of social workers in the children's field in connection with state conferences of social work, and traveling teachers of case work have been used by the Child Welfare League of America and other agencies. Various institutions and agencies during the past few years have sent social case workers to schools of social work on scholarship or fellowship.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year saw legislative sessions in 43 states. Little change was made in the statutes of these states as they related to children's agencies and institutions. In Michigan (No. 124) children committed to the State Public School may now be placed out in boarding homes. The school is to pay the cost of maintenance, and the superintendent of the school is required to investigate these boarding homes. Texas passed a law (Ch. 204) providing for the investigation and licensing of day nurseries, children's boarding homes, child-placing and other agencies caring for children under the age of 15 by the State Board of Health, to which these agencies must also make reports, as there is no state board of charity or department of public welfare in this state.

During the year California examined the operation of the adoption law, which had been amended in 1927 so as to require an investigation of every petition for adoption

to be made by the State Department of Social Welfare. After this examination it was estimated that three-fourths of the children adopted were born out of wedlock, and that they were frequently placed directly from hospitals by doctors, lawyers, ministers, and friends without proper investigation. Apparently the law has resulted in fewer adoptions, both because of the deterrent effect and because the Department has sometimes by its intervention been able to aid mothers to keep their children instead of giving them up for adoption. *See* ADOPTION.

The largest development during the year in any state came in Alabama, where under an optional statute the State Department of Child Welfare practically completed the organization of the state through the establishment of county units of child welfare in all but one of its 67 counties with a trained or partly trained person in charge of each county. In Cuyahoga County, Ohio (Cleveland), the organization of a County Child Welfare Board was authorized. Its first budget is $350,000, much of which came by transfer from other public or private agencies which had previously rendered part of the services now consolidated under one head.

CONSULT: Folks, Homer: *Care of Destitute, Neglected, and Delinquent Children*, 1902; Healy, Bronner, Baylor, and Murphy: *Reconstructing Behavior in Youth*, 1929; Thurston, H. W.: *The Dependent Child*, 1930; Jamison, A. T.: *The Institution for Children* (Baptist Book Depository, Columbia, S. C.), not dated; Lundberg, Emma O.: *State Commissions for the Study and Revision of Child Welfare Laws* (Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Publication No. 131), 1924; Hewins, Webster, and Evans: *The Work of Child Placing Agencies* (Publication No. 171 of the same Bureau), 1927; Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Standards of Child Welfare* (Publication No. 60), 1919, *Foster Home Care for Dependent Children* (Publication No. 136), 1929, and *Handbook for the Use of Boards of Directors, Superintendents, and Staffs of Institutions for Dependent Children* (Publication No. 170), 1927; Murphy, J. Prentice: "The Superficial Character of Child Caring Work," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1922; Carstens, C. C.: "Some Conclusions Based on a Series of Studies by the Child Welfare League of America," and McHugh, Rose: "Some Conclusions from a Series of Studies by the National Catholic Welfare Conference," in the same *Proceedings*, 1929; Reeder, R. R.: "Our Orphaned Asylums," in the *Survey*, June 1, 1925; "The Matter of Orphanages"—Comments and criticisms relating to the preceding article from several social workers, in the *Survey*, September 15, 1925; Reeder, R. R.: "The Place of Children's Institutions," in the *Survey*, January 15, 1929; "Children's Institutions"—Communications to the editor criticizing the preceding article, in the *Survey*, March 15, 1929, and Deardorff, Neva R.: "The New Pied Pipers," in the *Survey*, April 1, 1924.

C. C. CARSTENS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DESERTION AND NON-SUPPORT. No problem with which social agencies deal has a more demoralizing effect on society than that of desertion and non-support. A non-supporter is regarded as one who, though in the home, fails to provide for his family, and a deserter as one who, in addition to that failure, leaves his home. Man is highly organized, therefore complex in his reactions, and it is impossible to state that any single factor is the cause of desertion, because contributing factors are always present. Desertion is a symptom and not a cause, and if this symptom, or the defect which it connotes, could be recognized in its early stage social treatment could be effected and many cases of desertion avoided. If the contributing factors of incompatibility, interference of relatives, immorality, intemperance, unemployment, nagging, hasty, mercenary, or forced marriages, and emotional instability and mental disturbances which lead to desertion could be recognized as easily and quickly as physical disability or the necessity for material relief, the potential problem could be dealt with before desertion occurs.

The mental clinics of the future, it is hoped, will develop a program whereby

young people will learn how dependent successful married life is on the mental attitudes of husband and wife. The serious menace to marriage comes from emotionally unstable young people who refuse responsibility for parenthood, and are unprepared for the necessary give and take of married life and the economic emergencies which will occur. If marriage is given serious consideration and study, family solidarity will be strengthened. Desertion as a symptom of mental disease needs to be recognized and treated before the break occurs, just as the predisposition to tuberculosis is recognized and treated to prevent illness and death.

For many years family agencies, child-caring agencies, courts, and other social organizations have been finding desertion one of their most difficult problems, and in the last few years it has come to be considered a community problem. Agencies have united in community committees to study it and to study the facilities, both public and private, for meeting it. For many years there has been a national body, the National Desertion Bureau, organized to locate Jewish deserters.

During the past four years social workers interested in the problem have met at the National Conference of Social Work. This group is known as the National Committee on Desertion. In 1928 a report was made to the committee giving the results of a nation-wide questionnaire sent to selected agencies on the extent and cost of the problem and the advisability of establishing a national bureau to cooperate with existing agencies. The replies showed that there was little data of statistical value available. In 1929, as a result of this report, further studies were made of desertion cases in Cleveland and in San Francisco, primarily in relation to the cost and extent of the problem. Cleveland went farther than San Francisco and computed the number of hours' service given to deserted families by social agencies, the cost of material relief, institutional care, child care, hospitals, dispensaries, maternity homes, and public health nursing. The study covered 533 families known over a period of six winter months to the following Cleveland agencies: Associated Charities, Children's Bureau, Humane Society, Jewish Social Service Bureau, Salvation Army, and Welfare Association for Jewish Children. A social interpretation of this study has not been made, but the statistical report seems to show these families to be a normal group, for the percentages according to population, nationality, and religion correspond to the same groupings in the population of the city. The cost to the community was shown to be $78,000 for six months. If the loss of income to the family had been counted the total would be much more.

Desertion laws in the different states, even at the present time, range from those which declare the offense to be a misdemeanor in the lowest grade to those in which it is regarded as the highest grade of felony. The problem must be interpreted under present conditions and not according to those of 20 years ago, and old-fashioned tools must be replaced by new ones, both legal and social. Whether desertion should be a misdemeanor or a felony has been a disputed question, due to the difference of opinion as to whether it is more important to punish a non-supporter or to enable or induce him to support his family.

There is no uniformity of law on this subject. More could be accomplished by the adoption of uniform laws in all states—empowering authorities to punish a deserter regardless of his place of legal residence—than by means of any national law.

CONSULT: Mowrer, Ernest: *Family Disorganization*, 1927, and *Domestic Discord*, 1928; Colcord, Joanna C.: *Broken Homes* (A Study of Family Desertion and its Social Treatment), 1919; and Sherman, Corrine: "Racial Factors in Desertion," in *The Family* for October, November, and December, 1922, and January, 1923.

ELIZABETH PARRISH LEITCH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DETENTION HOMES. The needs of dependent, neglected, and delinquent children who are held pending the disposition of their cases by properly authorized courts are receiving increasing attention. The possibility of mental and physical dangers to the individual child, the certain expense to the community, and the uncertain results from prevailing methods of detention suggest the importance of careful study of existing programs.

The use of publicly supported detention homes has had general acceptance. A recent comprehensive study of the Wayne County Detention Home (Detroit, Mich.), characteristic of surveys elsewhere, indicates that there are many unnecessary admissions and occasional long delays before cases are finally disposed of. The report wisely concludes that adequate standards of case work, inter-agency cooperation between police and child-caring societies, and a well-defined policy of intake and maintenance are necessary to prevent serious abuse of detention placement. Furthermore, since the Detroit institution provides for the custodial care of selected cases only, the report urges the development of the necessary safeguards of protective segregation, constructive supervision, and early release in the case of children detained only pending hearing. Social experimentation is showing that there are very few children in any community for whom such isolated care must necessarily be provided. The wisdom of its use for corrective purposes and for scientific observation is still much doubted.

The detention facilities of a congregate type developed by a few private child-caring agencies present similar problems. This plan demands equally well-defined policies of admission and control, and calls for exact definition of responsibility and determination by the community of the quality and quantity of service to be rendered.

The boarding-home plan of detention, commonly known as the "Boston System," utilizes private family placement on a subsidy basis. (*See* DELINQUENT CHILDREN—FOSTER HOME CARE.) It offers selective, individualized care which is generally advantageous to the child. A survey of the field shows increasing acceptance of this plan and suggests its suitability for rural areas where a specialized institution is costly and undesirable. The detention of children in almshouses or in special sections of jails and police stations is recognized as undesirable. Although such placements are widely used in some districts, the modern point of view is now demanding an altered plan of care. This may most often be provided by private family placement under adequate supervision of trained case workers.

A nation-wide study of methods of detention of children was begun during 1929, under the auspices of the National Probation Association, on a grant of $33,000 from the Bureau of Social Hygiene. The purpose of the study, which is to be completed by January 1, 1932, is to survey the systems of caring for children pending court disposition, to evaluate these systems, and to prepare recommendations of practical use to social workers and to communities which must meet the important and far-reaching problem of how best to provide temporary care for dependent, neglected, and delinquent children whose circumstances render care of this sort a necessity.

CONSULT: Lenroot and Lundberg: *Juvenile Courts at Work* (Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor, Publication No. 141), 1925; Healy and Bronner: *Delinquents and Criminals, Their Making and Unmaking*, 1926; Lenroot, K. F.: "Progressive Methods of Care of Children Pending Juvenile Court Hearing," in *Proceedings, National Probation Association*, 1926; Lou, Herbert H.: *Juvenile Courts in the United States* (Section on Detention), 1927; Millis, Savilla: *The Juvenile Detention Home in Relation to Juvenile Court Policy*, 1927.

HARRISON A. DOBBS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DIPHTHERIA PREVENTION. Diphtheria is caused by a germ which attacks the mucous membranes of the nose, throat, and larynx. Infection can be spread through contact with sick persons or with articles touched by the discharge from such persons' noses or throats. In many cases people who have had the disease, or who have been exposed to it, become diphtheria carriers; that is, they carry the germs in their noses and throats and may infect others, although apparently well themselves. Diphtheria takes its greatest death toll among children under five years of age, although those up to 10 years are well within the danger period. Unless promptly treated with antitoxin, out of 100 children who have diphtheria from 25 to 40 die, and those who recover are often left with weak hearts or other permanent physical defects. Older persons are less subject to the disease.

The great need for preventive measures against diphtheria can be seen in the comparatively high death rate from this disease. In 1926, the most recent year for which nation-wide statistics are available, the death rate from diphtheria in the registration area of the United States was 7.5 per 100,000 of population. In 1928 the following rates were reported for the following cities, arranged here by the size of their respective rates: Newark, 20.0; Detroit, 16.2; Chicago, 14.5; Pittsburgh, 11.6; Buffalo, 11.3; Philadelphia, 11.1; New York City, 10.7; Cleveland, 10.3; Providence, 9.1; Cincinnati, 8.9; Washington, 8.2; Boston, 7.9; Baltimore, 7.6; Los Angeles, 7.1; Milwaukee, 6.3; Minneapolis, 5.3; San Francisco, 3.0; St. Paul, 1.7; and Seattle, 1.0.

History and Present Status. Organized activities for the elimination of diphtheria owe their origin and effectiveness to the discovery by von Behring, in 1893, of antitoxin, a serum which effects a cure in most cases of the disease if administered early enough; and to the introduction by von Behring, Park, and others, in 1913, of toxin-antitoxin (a mixture of diphtheria poison with antitoxin) which, when given to children in three doses a week apart, protects most of these children against diphtheria for life. To combat diphtheria successfully in any community it is necessary thus to immunize every child before it reaches its first birthday, preferably when it is nine months old, as it inherits a natural immunity from the mother which lasts until about that time. But in new territories, instead of concentrating efforts upon the babies alone, it is also essential to immunize all children under 10 years of age.

Within the past few years state and city health departments throughout the United States have begun to conduct intensive campaigns to have all children immunized against diphtheria, and the results of these efforts are already beginning to be evident. In the city of Auburn, N. Y., the death rate from diphtheria has fallen from 38.4 to zero, and in Middletown, N. Y., there has not been a single death from diphtheria since 1921. In San Joaquin County, Cal., the death rate was reduced from 51 to 2.6, and New Haven, Detroit, and other cities have also greatly reduced the prevalence of the disease. Typical of the measures used in diphtheria prevention campaigns are those of the New York City Department of Health, which began on January 1, 1929, to make an intensive effort to wipe out diphtheria altogether in the municipality. A committee of 50 leading citizens was organized and the cooperation of the press, county medical societies, private and public health organizations, and different nationality groups was enlisted. The chief problem was to convince parents of the need and value of toxin-antitoxin treatments and get them to send their children to the family doctor or to the baby health stations of the Department of Health. As a means of parent education the commission utilized the radio, newspaper columns, talking motion pictures, moving electric signs, posters in transit vehicles, rallies and conferences in schools and churches, posters in the offices of physicians, and innumerable other avenues of ap-

proach. The city health department directed the campaign, utilizing such public funds as were available for the purpose and supplementing them by grants from the Milbank Memorial Fund and the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. As fast as the procedures are developed, tested and found effective, they are made a part of the routine of the health department, to be carried by means of public funds exclusively.

As a result of the commission's work 211,985 children were immunized against diphtheria during 1929, as compared with approximately 50,000 children immunized in 1928. How effective this work has been can be noted from the fact that the death rate from diphtheria in 1929 was reduced to 7.63 per 100,000 from 10.67, the rate of the preceding year. This means the saving of 179 lives as the result of one year's work.

Among other cities which conducted anti-diphtheria campaigns during 1929 were: Oswego, N. Y.; Baltimore, Md.; Wilmington, Del.; Topeka, Kan.; Charleston, S. C.; Orlando, Fla.; Daytona Beach, Fla.; Winston-Salem, N. C.; and others.

CONSULT: Park, Williams, and Krumwiede: Pathogenic Micro-organisms, 1929; Nuttall and Graham-Smith: *The Bacteriology of Diphtheria*, 1913 (articles by Park, Wm. H., and Bolduan, Charles F., and a bibliography); Park, Wm. H.: *Public Health and Hygiene*, 1928; and Diphtheria Prevention Commission, New York City Department of Health: *How to Protect Children from Diphtheria, a Handbook of Information* (1929), and *The Plan of New York's Diphtheria Campaign* (a mimeographed report), 1928.

SHIRLEY W. WYNNE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

DISASTER RELIEF is probably the most spectacular of all forms of social work. It has also been one of the most difficult fields to organize. Disasters make instant appeal to the emotions and large sums are given for relief. Great emergencies are a challenge to the organizing forces of successful business men, and it was chiefly through their planning, supplementary to important services of army and navy officials, and affected but little by the plans of social agencies, that relief in this country's most conspicuous disasters was administered until within comparatively recent years. Today the resources and abilities of the three groups are utilized cooperatively. For this changed situation the American National Red Cross, organized on this side of the Atlantic in 1881, has been primarily responsible. With increasing prestige, increased funds, and an enlarged permanent staff—expansible in emergencies through joint understandings with social agencies throughout the country—it was able even before the World War, and conspicuously since that period, to represent the field of social work as well as the Nation in this important form of service.

The present article, accordingly, deals entirely with disaster relief under the auspices of the American Red Cross. By the charter granted to the organization by Congress, its obligations include among others the following: "To continue and carry on a system of national and international relief in time of peace and to apply the same in mitigating the sufferings caused by pestilence, famine, fire, floods, and other national calamities, and to devise and carry on measures for preventing the same." During the 48 years from July 1, 1881, to June 30, 1929, it gave assistance in 1,014 disasters in the United States. Its expenditures for domestic disaster relief during the period were $52,774,328. These disasters included 271 cyclones, tornadoes, hurricanes and other storms, 152 floods, and 139 fires. In addition there were mine disasters, explosions, epidemics, forest fires, building collapses, steamboat wrecks, train wrecks and numerous other types of catastrophes. Conspicuous among these were the following, with the organization's relief expenditures in each case: San Francisco fire (1906), $3,087,469; Ohio Valley floods (1913), $2,472,287; Texas flood and cyclone (1919), $534,920; Missouri, Illinois and Indiana tornado (1925), $3,256,017; Florida hurricane (1926),

$4,484,280; Mississippi Valley flood (1927), $16,994,868; and the West Indies hurricane (1928), $5,898,725.

The Red Cross national headquarters in Washington, with branch offices in St. Louis and San Francisco, is organized to take immediate action in the event of a disaster. The emergency organization is built around a small permanent disaster staff of experienced relief workers. In case of a catastrophe all 990 employes of the national organization in the United States are available for disaster assignment, and many of them have had disaster experience. Included are 87 field representatives who travel throughout the several states to assist Red Cross chapters in their local programs, and also 308 camp, hospital, and liaison office workers stationed in Army, Navy, and Veterans' Bureau posts and headquarters. In addition, through understandings with many social case work agencies, the national organization has a reserve corps of workers, employed by these agencies, who may be assigned temporarily to Red Cross disaster work.

The 3,547 Red Cross chapters, with their 12,673 branches, are also prepared to give immediate emergency relief in their communities when disaster strikes. The local chapter notifies the national headquarters or the appropriate branch office, and the national organization extends whatever assistance is necessary to support the chapter in its relief program. In large disasters it is sometimes necessary for the national organization to take direct charge of the relief work, assisted by the local chapter or chapters. The executive committee, the disaster preparedness and relief committee, and other local committees are composed of representative citizens. An increasing number of chapters have a disaster preparedness and relief committee, with subcommittees on food, clothing, shelter, medical aid, registration and information, transportation and communication, and finance. Larger chapters sometimes have subcommittees also on survey and intelligence, and on rescue. In developing disaster plans all local resources, including the army and navy stations and all local public and private cooperating agencies, are listed, and arrangements are made by which these resources may be applied as a unit to prevent suffering when disasters occur.

The United States Government assists the Red Cross program by providing ships, aeroplanes, radio communication facilities, tents, cots, blankets and other government property and service. In addition, the several departments and other divisions of the government give the Red Cross the benefit of the advisory service of their experienced personnel. State and local governments and other organizations also give assistance.

As a result of its experience the Red Cross has developed a complete procedure and technique for handling disaster situations. Manuals have been issued for the guidance of chapters and branches and for the use of the personnel of the national organization. Most disaster relief operations involve two periods—emergency relief and rehabilitation. During the emergency period the Red Cross cares for the urgent temporary needs, such as food, clothing, shelter, and medical aid. In the rehabilitation period the Red Cross considers the needs of each family affected by the disaster, and whenever necessary endeavors to supplement the family's resources to enable it to regain a self-supporting status in the community. Some of the policies which the Red Cross has developed in this field are the following: (a) The only proper basis for aid from the relief fund is need—not loss. (b) Disaster relief funds may not be used to meet needs not due directly to the disaster. (c) No loans will be made; help is freely extended and creates no obligation on the part of the recipient. (d) Families moving away from the area will receive the same consideration as those remaining. (e) Cash grants will be given only when the facts established in the case investigation indicate conclusively that this is the best way to help the family. (f) Individual awards and case records must be

treated as strictly confidential. (g) Whenever possible, orders for supplies will be placed with local merchants, for in this way both the beneficiary and the merchant—who is often also a disaster sufferer—are assisted, and the whole community benefited.

CONSULT: O'Connor, C. J., and others: *San Francisco Relief Survey*, Russell Sage Foundation, 1913; Deacon, J. Byron: *Disasters, and the American Red Cross in Disaster Relief*, 1918; American National Red Cross: *Annual Reports*, 1905 to 1929, *When Disaster Strikes—Procedure for Red Cross Chapters*, 1929; *Disaster Preparedness and Relief—A Manual for Chapters*, 1929, and reports on individual disasters.

JOHN D. CREMER, JR.

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19.

DISPENSARIES. *See* CLINICS AND OUT-PATIENT DEPARTMENTS.

DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS are organized either for the purpose of providing specialized court treatment for certain classes of family cases, such as non-support and desertion, or with the aim of centralizing all matters relating to the family in one court equipped to give social case treatment. The terms "domestic relations court" and "family court" are often used interchangeably, but the tendency is to reserve the latter term for courts having comprehensive jurisdiction over both juvenile and adult cases.

Family courts, in the words of Judge Charles W. Hoffman, of Cincinnati, a leader in the movement for their establishment, are established "for the consideration of all matters relating to the family in one court of exclusive jurisdiction in which the same methods of procedure shall prevail as in the juvenile court, and in which it will be possible to consider social evidence as distinguished from legal evidence." To another judge who has been interested in this movement, Edward F. Waite, of Minneapolis, these courts represent "the interest of the State in the conservation of childhood, the intimate interrelation of all justiciable questions involving family life, and the need for administrative aid in the wise solution of such questions."

Family courts vary greatly in jurisdiction, organization, and procedure. On the first basis they may be classified as follows: (a) The family court with juvenile and comprehensive adult jurisdiction, including children's cases, cases of divorce, desertion and non-support, and contributing to delinquency and dependency; (b) the family court of juvenile and limited adult jurisdiction, including divorce or desertion and non-support, but not including both of these types of cases; (c) the juvenile court with comprehensive adult jurisdiction, not including divorce; (d) the domestic relations court without juvenile or divorce jurisdiction; and (e) the municipal or district court with juvenile and domestic relations divisions.

The organization of family courts of all types includes the segregation on the calendar of the cases included in the classification and the service of officers specializing in the social treatment of these cases. The procedure of a fully developed court includes adjustment of cases without official court action when possible, informal hearings in which only those concerned in the case are present, social investigation, and probationary supervision, or other follow-up service. Only a few courts, however, have developed all these types of service in domestic relations as distinguished from juvenile cases.

History and Present Status. Domestic relations courts owe their origin both to the extension of juvenile court jurisdiction and to the development of probation in criminal courts. Very early in the history of juvenile courts the need for including in their jurisdiction certain types of adult cases became apparent. In 1903 Colorado enacted a law making contributing to delinquency an offense within juvenile court jurisdiction. Nearly all juvenile courts now hear some adult cases, but the nature of the court's jurisdiction varies from state to state. The first court designated as a court of domestic

relations, however, was given no juvenile jurisdiction. It is a division of the city court of Buffalo, created in 1910 to deal with all criminal cases relating to domestic or family affairs, and bastardy cases, which were transferred to another court in 1926.

The first court with jurisdiction over both domestic relations and juvenile cases was established in 1914 in Hamilton County (Cincinnati), Ohio, as a division of the court of common pleas. In that court, for the first time, divorce cases were brought into a court especially organized to deal with child welfare and family life. Virginia in 1922 was the first state to establish a state-wide system of family courts, though the children's courts of New York State, created in the same year, have extensive domestic relations jurisdiction.

The family court movement has gained wide recognition in the past 15 years. In addition to the many states in which the juvenile court has greater or less jurisdiction over domestic relations cases, the family court, in which children's cases and specified types of adult cases are heard, has been established throughout the states of New Jersey and Virginia, in seven counties in Ohio, and in one or more communities in Alabama, Missouri, North Carolina, Oregon, Tennessee, West Virginia, and the Territory of Hawaii. The domestic relations court with adult jurisdiction only has been established in parts of Illinois, Massachusetts, New Jersey, and New York. In other states—including Iowa, Nebraska, and Pennsylvania, and also in Massachusetts—organization for juvenile and domestic relations work has been developed by municipal and district courts.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Few members of the probation departments of courts of domestic relations have the training or experience specified as desirable in the juvenile court standards drawn up by a committee appointed by the United States Children's Bureau; namely, graduation from college or its equivalent, or from a school of social work and at least one year's experience in case work under supervision. This may be explained in part by the salaries paid, which as a rule have been inadequate though increasing somewhat in recent years, and in part by the fact that in most communities probation work has not yet been placed upon as firm a professional basis as social work by family welfare societies or child-caring agencies with high standards.

In a majority of the 26 family courts of different types recently studied by the United States Children's Bureau, appointments of probation officers were made from eligible lists established after examinations held by civil service commissions or other agencies. As a rule definite standards of education and experience were not prescribed in these examinations. (*The Child, The Family, and The Court, Part I, General Findings and Recommendations*, p. 37.)

Legislation, 1929. The most important laws passed during the year were the following: A New Jersey law (Ch. 157) creating a state-wide system of family courts, such courts having been established previously in first-class counties only; a North Carolina law (Ch. 343) establishing new family courts with juvenile and comprehensive adult jurisdiction in Mecklenburg County; a Tennessee law (Private Acts, Ch. 675) doing the same for Hamilton County in that state; and an Oregon law (Ch. 183) establishing a family court for Multnomah County with larger jurisdiction than the court which it succeeded, divorce suits being included if uncontested and if they involved children under 18 years of age. The three counties last named include the cities of Charlotte, N. C., Chattanooga, Tenn., and Portland, Ore.

The most important bills in this field which failed to become laws were the following: a Pennsylvania bill to establish a family court in Philadelphia; a Washington bill to establish a domestic relations court in Pierce County, which includes the city of Tacoma; and a Connecticut bill to create a commission to study the entire subject.

Other Events and Developments, 1929. Among the developments of the year in addition to legislation, mention may be made of the following matters: Salaries of probation officers in family courts, and also the number of such officers, were increased in some communities, and from a few communities there were reports of an increasing tendency to use psychiatric clinical service or increased cooperation with other social agencies; new programs for the treatment of domestic relations cases were developed in some communities without special family courts or courts of domestic relations. For example, in Cuyahoga County (Cleveland), Ohio, one judge of the court of common pleas has been assigned to domestic relations cases, and these have been segregated on the calendar. The plan is for the 12 common pleas judges to rotate, each in turn devoting one year to this class of litigation. In San Antonio the district attorney has designated two of his assistants to manage a department called "Wife and Child Abandonment Court." This department receives complaints for wife desertion and collects support for wives and children.

During the year the Children's Bureau conducted the second part of its study (*The Child, The Family, and The Court*), consisting of descriptions of court organization and administration in the communities visited, and prepared a chart (published in 1930) showing courts having original jurisdiction in children's cases and cases of domestic relations; the National Probation Association made studies in Denver, Colo., Polk County, Iowa, Douglas County, Neb., and Multnomah County, Ore.; the Division of Probation of the State Department of Correction made a confidential study of the children's courts of New York State (courts which have comprehensive adult jurisdiction) and a study of the family court of New York City; and the Pennsylvania Committee on Penal Affairs made a study of the treatment of adult offenders and children in several Pennsylvania counties.

CONSULT: National Probation Association: *Bibliography*, 1926, and *Annual Proceedings;* United States Children's Bureau: *The Child, The Family and the Court, Part I* (Publication No. 193), 1929; Dutcher, Elizabeth: "Some Techniques for the Treatment of Domestic Discord Used by Case Workers," in *Social Forces*, June, 1929; Mowrer, Ernest R.: "A Sociological Analysis of the Contents of 2,000 Case Records with Special Reference to the Treatment of Family Discord," in *Social Forces*, June, 1929; Shelly, P. J.: *The Social and Economic Value of the Family Court* (New York Department of Correction, Division of Probation), 1929; Zunser, Charles: "Family Desertion" (Report on a study of 423 cases), in *Annals of the American Academy*, September, 1929.

KATHARINE F. LENROOT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

DOMESTIC SERVICE. *See* HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT.

DRAMATICS. *See* AMATEUR DRAMATICS.

DRUG ADDICTION, for the purposes of this article, is limited to addiction to opium and cocaine, their derivatives and preparations. The problem of opium addiction is known to have existed almost since the earliest recorded medical use of the drug, which dates back to 4,000 B.C. With the invention of the hypodermic syringe in 1845, a considerable impetus was given to addiction to morphine. The use of these drugs had previously been described as "appetites," and the users were termed "eaters." It was thought at first that the injection of morphine under the skin would not give rise to the opium appetite, and the procedure was hailed as a means of preventing addiction to the drug where its medical use was required for considerable periods of time. That these assumptions were ill-founded is well-known. When the production of heroin began in Germany in 1898, this opium derivative, more properly known as diacetylmorphine, was also received enthusiastically, and

among its earliest uses was that for the treatment of morphinism. While a few early warnings were published (1899–1900–1901), medical literature as a whole until about 1910 continued to claim that heroin was devoid of harmful effects.

The extent of addiction to opium is not known with accuracy in any country. In the United States many estimates have been made, the most recent ones varying from 110,000 to 1,000,000. It is practically the only addiction-forming drug known that presents peculiarly difficult problems in connection with its renunciation by the user. Tolerance to the drug is established rapidly, so that the effect of the drug as experienced in its first taking is lost, and most users rapidly increase the daily dose in an effort to regain the original effect. When addiction is established and the daily dose is not taken, the so-called withdrawal or abstinence symptoms develop. These symptoms vary in intensity, but in practically all cases are so intense as to preclude the likelihood, if not the possibility, of successful treatment without medical assistance.

Addiction to cocaine in this country is chiefly confined to the underworld and criminal classes. It is used solely for purposes of dissipation. It does not bring about a situation comparable to that caused by opium and its derivatives, inasmuch as it may be relinquished without difficulty at any time. Problems, therefore, involved in its use are no different from those in the use of any other prohibited commodity, and their control involves the employment of the same social agencies, with the exception of the essential medical treatment, as in the case of opium.

Legislative Regulation. State laws dealing not only with the smoking of opium but with the use of this drug or any of its derivatives, except for medical purposes when prescribed by a physician, have been passed from time to time until at present all states in the Union and the District of Columbia have such laws. They failed, however, to have any appreciable effect upon the extent of the illicit use of the drugs with which they dealt; and in 1914, partly to control the interstate traffic and partly to fullfil the obligations of this country arising out of the Shanghai Opium Conference of 1909, the first federal law dealing with the importation, manufacture, sale, and distribution of opium and coca leaves and their derivatives and preparations was passed by Congress, and went into effect on May 1, 1915. This has been known as the Harrison Narcotic Act, and as amended and amplified by regulations is in operation today. Further federal legislation, dealing particularly with importations and providing for a narcotic control board charged with the function of determining the amount of the crude drugs to be imported into this country for medical purposes, was passed in 1922. The preceding act was amended in 1924 to include a provision forbidding the importation of opium for the manufacture of heroin.

Just as the states found themselves unable to cope with the problem without the assistance of the federal government to control interstate traffic, so this country has found itself unable to cope with the illicit traffic except through international effort and cooperation. In 1912 at the Hague Opium Conference, attended by representatives of 12 countries, a convention dealing with the control of production and traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs was entered into. At Versailles in 1919 and 1920 this convention was confirmed by the League of Nations, and since then committees of the League have been constantly occupied with the problem presented by the control of production of the crude drug and manufactured products. The problem presents so many difficulties inherent in the economic value of the crops concerned, in the industrial conditions under which they are produced, and in the peculiar local characteristics of the countries and people producing them, that up to date effective control has been rendered impossible.

State laws in this country vary markedly

in their provisions and in their methods of enforcement, and as a whole are not effective. The federal law is slow of operation, owing to the crowded conditions of the courts; and the state laws, which might act more rapidly against violators, are in many instances not adapted to utilize the evidence secured by federal agents, or the states have not sufficient enforcing agents of their own. Generally speaking, both federal and state laws limit the importation, manufacture, sale, and distribution of opium and coca leaves and their derivatives and preparations to certain licensed importers, manufacturers, jobbers, and retailers. The retailers include physicians and pharmacists who deal directly with the patients for whom these drugs are prescribed or to whom they are dispensed or administered. Possession of these drugs, except upon a legally authorized prescription, is a violation of most state laws and of the federal law.

Institutional Treatment. A difficulty experienced in the handling of indigent patients, or those who are not able to pay for private institutional treatment, is due to the almost total lack of public institutional provision for their treatment. For the most part the only places available are state hospitals or correctional institutions where the patient's mental condition or criminal activities render commitment proper. Such patients may be handled more or less effectively in these institutions, but the required procedure does not encourage voluntary commitment. In New York City, for example, an indigent person desiring treatment for opium addiction must pass through the police department, be finger-printed and photographed, and find himself, when he has been sentenced by the judge as an addict, confined with felons or petty misdemeanants in a correctional institution. Of quite a different character is the as yet small institution operated by the Narcotic Educational Association of Michigan, Inc.—an organization supported by funds from private institutions and subscriptions to the Detroit Community Fund. Its equipment consists of 320 acres about 65 miles from Detroit. During 1930 it will have capacity for 100 patients. A follow-up system is to be developed.

In 1919 the City of New Orleans attacked the problem in a new way. It opened a narcotic clinic where patients were supplied with these drugs legally, pending opportunity for treatment. This example was followed later by about 42 other cities, including New York. These clinics represented an early and intelligent effort to solve some of the problems arising out of the prohibitory laws, and offered opportunities for studying their medical and social aspects. The clinics, however, were considered by the federal Narcotics Division as illegal and were closed, so that today there are no public clinics and few institutions, as has been stated above, where an individual addicted to opium can apply for advice and treatment necessitated by his condition.

Two recent developments in the field of institutional care, however, require mention. These are the California Act of 1927 and the federal act of 1928. The former provides "for the confinement, cure, care, and rehabilitation of drug addicts" in an institution. Individuals convicted of drug addiction in the state courts shall be committed to the institution for not less than eight months or more than two years, their discharge to be determined by the head of the institution. Voluntary commitments are provided for, and in such cases the patients must pay the cost of their treatment and may be discharged when cured. The Congressional act called for the establishment of two narcotic farms for the confinement and treatment of individuals addicted to the specified drugs, who have been convicted of offenses under federal law. Administrative and medical supervision are delegated to the Public Health Service. The act declares: "That the care, discipline, and treatment of persons admitted to or confined in a United States narcotic farm shall be designed to rehabilitate them, restore them to health,

and where necessary train them to be self-supporting and self-reliant." The act provides for the industrial employment of the inmates of these farms in useful occupations. Provision is made for voluntary commitment, the treatment in such cases to remain confidential and not to be used against the persons committed in any court of justice. Their admission is made dependent on the accommodations of these farms, after the admission of all convicted addicts. Plans for the buildings are going forward, as are also plans for the medical handling of inmates and their social rehabilitation.

Research constitutes the most recent method used in dealing with this problem. The Committee on Drug Addiction was organized in 1921 for the purpose of ascertaining such facts about the non-medical use of opium as might throw light upon existing conditions and suggest rational preventive and control measures. The two main lines requiring investigation were chronic opium intoxication as a social problem and as an individual problem. The Committee first collected a bibliography of about 7,000 items, and prepared and published a report in 1928 known as *The Opium Problem.* Subsequent activities have been: (a) The subsidizing of laboratory research as to the effect of morphine under different conditions of dosage and withdrawal on animals; (b) clinical studies of human beings during addiction, withdrawal, and abstinence; and (c) medico-sociologic field studies dealing with the legal use of opium and coca leaves in certain American fields. The results of the research work on animals have been published from time to time in suitable scientific journals, and authors' reprints of all published articles are available to a limited extent at the office of the committee. The results of the clinical studies on human subjects, carried on at a large general hospital have been published in the *Archives of Internal Medicine.* The results of the field studies dealing with the legal per capita use of these drugs under the provisions of federal law will be published during 1930 in pamphlet form by the Committee. In general it has been the Committee's conviction that more facts and less opinion were needed for an understanding of the many and varied aspects of the problems involved in the use and misuse of narcotic drugs, and all of its efforts have been directed to this end. On January 1, 1929, a special committee under the Division of Medical Sciences of the National Research Council undertook research on morphine with reference to its chemical and pharmacologic properties. The study was designed to cover a period of three years. No reports were published during the year.

In general it may be said that only within the past decade has any widespread interest been taken in the medical and social problems arising out of the use and misuse of opium. Research on the pathologic, physiologic, and psychologic phases of the problem has been slow in developing in this country. In consequence the older ideas that relegated the chronic use of opium unqualifiedly to the group of vicious habits have persisted longer here than in Europe and have tinctured official remedial measures and discouraged private endeavor. It is believed that the more understanding conceptions resulting from increasingly frequent studies will lead to more sound measures for prevention, cure, and control.

CONSULT: Terry and Pellens: *The Opium Problem,* 1928—Covers the history and development of the problems involved in opium addiction, the nature of opium addiction, its extent in the United States, its causes, pathology, treatment, and control (international, national, state, municipal) together with a bibliography of approximately 400 items dealing with these various aspects of the problem.

CHARLES E. TERRY

For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK. With more than 25 years of experience in schools of social work, with 29 schools in a 10-year-old association, with a professional organiza-

tion of 4,200 members and 43 chapters, with probably 25,000 professional social workers in the United States, and a possible need for 3,000 new workers each year—education for social work is today facing problems of increasing magnitude and complexity. Its present methods are based on experience with apprenticeship, schools of social work, special schools and courses, institutes and study courses, and have been influenced by national agencies through their committees on education, by the American Association of Social Workers and its constituent chapters, and by the Association of Schools of Professional Social Work.

As early as 1893, in her paper on "The Need of Training Schools for a New Profession" at the International Congress of Charities in Chicago, Anna Dawes emphasized the relation between successful social work by any agency and the preparation of its workers. Four years later Mary E. Richmond, in her paper "The Need of a Training School in Applied Philanthropy" (*Proceedings, National Conference of Charities and Corrections, 1897*), advocated a professional school for social workers, affiliated with a university but having freedom to emphasize practical features of the subjects taught. By 1915 there were five independent schools in operation and two university schools. Important discussions at the National Conference of Charities and Corrections that year included a report by Porter R. Lee, "The Professional Basis of Social Work," a paper by Jeffrey R. Brackett, on "The Curriculum of the Professional School of Social Work," a paper by Abraham Flexner, entitled "Is Social Work a Profession?" and one by Felix Frankfurter, entitled "Social Work and Professional Training." These papers are significant indications of the increasing attention already given to the subject at that time. The World War brought a great expansion in social work, and a large new personnel was rapidly recruited, mainly through institutes organized by the American Red Cross in cooperation with universities and schools of social work. In several universities permanent professional courses for social work were the outgrowth of these institutes.

In 1919 the common interests of existing schools led to the formation of the organization now called the Association of Professional Schools of Social Work, and in 1925 these interests were again recognized in the formation of the Division on Professional Standards and Education of the National Conference of Social Work.

Apprenticeship constituted the earliest method of education for social work. Experience had resulted in technical processes which, although they changed continually, could be passed on to others and mastered by them. The Boston Associated Charities under Zilpha D. Smith began to require, for its new workers, a period of instruction and training given by the general secretary and an experienced visitor. This plan was later adopted in all the larger family welfare societies prior to the establishment of schools of social work, and has continued in many as a six or nine months' period of apprenticeship, usually with the requirement that the worker remain a specified period with the society afterward. These prospective workers are referred to as apprentices, workers-in-training or visitors-in-training in family welfare societies, as student social workers in child guidance clinics, as trainees by the American Red Cross, and as fellows-in-training by the Young Women's Christian Association. Salaries vary; apprentices are paid from $75 to $90 a month, and the American Red Cross offers six-month scholarships of $100 a month to its trainees. A carefully prepared plan of apprenticeship for a nine months' period takes the place of field work in the Smith College courses.

Apprenticeship, as distinguished from undirected and unplanned experience, marks the first stage in professional education. It continues in a comparatively small number of agencies today. The position taken in the recent Milford Conference report (*Social Case Work, Generic and Specific*,' published

by the American Association of Social Workers, 1929) is that since the schools do not supply enough persons for social case work positions, apprenticeship must be continued but that its standards should be high. The report further suggests that apprenticeship training in social case work has a contribution to make to professional education through the "development of high, stable, educational standards in planned and supervised experience."

General Schools of Social Work. The first schools of social work were a direct outgrowth of the demand of the profession and were organized by social workers. The first six-week professional summer school was conducted by the New York Charity Organization Society in 1898, and admission was limited to workers with a year's experience. The course included work in the districts, field trips, lectures and discussions of case work for families, the care of dependent and delinquent children, public agencies, the dependent sick, the aged, fresh-air work, sanitary improvements, adult delinquents, and the functions of the charity organization movement in coordinating the work of social agencies. By 1904 these courses had developed into an all-year school, now the New York School of Social Work. In 1903 Graham Taylor, of Chicago Commons, and Julia Lathrop, of Hull House, were instrumental in organizing the Institute of Social Science as part of the Extension Division of the University of Chicago. This in 1907 became the independent Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, and is now the Graduate School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago. The Boston School of Social Workers was organized in 1904 under the auspices of Simmons College and Harvard University. The Missouri School of Social Economy, which had its origin in a series of discussions under the auspices of the Provident Association in 1902 in St. Louis, affiliated in 1909 with the University of Missouri. The Philadelphia Training School for Social Work, begun and staffed by social workers in 1908, became in 1916 the Pennsylvania School for Social Service.

The curricula of these schools included lecture courses and class work, field trips, and field work in some social agency with supervised practice of case work, usually in the local family welfare society, the central part of the courses. Through grants from the Russell Sage Foundation the first four schools were enabled to maintain departments of social investigation. These schools early aimed to be professional schools of graduate rank. The emphasis was not on social conditions but on social treatment. The New York and Boston Schools added a second year for specialization.

Although Professor Frankfurter in the paper already referred to had held that a real professional school should be an integral part of a university, many social workers feared that graduate schools, in their efforts to conform to the usual academic requirements for the granting of higher degrees, would fail to recognize the professional value of field work and technical courses. Later developments, however, have all been in schools connected integrally with universities. Among these, the Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research, organized at Bryn Mawr College in 1915, was the first school limited to college graduates. Universities have included field work and technical courses, but where the department of social work wishes to credit these courses toward a higher degree there are difficulties which sometimes result in less field work. The use of degrees by schools of social work needs study.

In 1920, at the request of the Association of Professional Schools of Social Work, the Russell Sage Foundation financed a study of education for social work made by Professor James H. Tufts. Of special significance is the question raised by Professor Tufts in the summary of his book, *Education and Training for Social Work.* He asked: Shall the schools prepare for specified activities

or shall they give "so broad and thorough an education and training for at least a minority of their pupils as shall fit them for the larger and profounder tasks which may be conceived under the analogy of social engineering or social statesmanship"? So far as the practices of the several schools are indicative of the opinions of their faculties, that question may be said to have received no generally accepted answer up to the present time.

The schools which in 1929 were members of the Association of Professional Schools of Social Work are the following:

Ann Arbor: University of Michigan, Curriculum in Social Work, Dr. Arthur E. Wood, Director.

Atlanta: Atlanta School of Social Work, F. B. Washington, Director.

Berkeley: University of California, Graduate Curriculum in Social Service, Dr. Charles B. Lipman, Dean.

Boston: Simmons College, School of Social Work, Katherine Hardwick, Director.

Bryn Mawr: Bryn Mawr College, Carola Woerishoffer Graduate Department of Social Economy and Social Research, Dr. Susan M. Kingsbury, Director.

Chapel Hill: University of North Carolina, School of Public Welfare, Dr. Howard W. Odum, Director.

Chicago: Loyola University, School of Sociology, Rev. Frederic Siedenburg, Dean.

Chicago: University of Chicago, Graduate School of Social Service Administration, Dr. Edith Abbott, Dean.

Cincinnati: University of Cincinnati, School of Social Work, Dr. Earle E. Eubank, Director.

Cleveland: Western Reserve University, School of Applied Social Sciences, Dr. J. E. Cutler, Dean.

Columbia: University of Missouri, Curriculum in Public Welfare, Eugene L. Morgan, Director.

Columbus: Ohio State University, School of Social Administration, Dr. J. E. Hagerty, Director.

Indianapolis: Indiana University, Training Course for Social Work, Dr. U. G. Weatherly, Director.

Los Angeles: University of Southern California, School of Social Welfare, Dr. E. S. Bogardus, Director.

Madison: University of Wisconsin, Course in Social Work, Dr. J. L. Gillin, Director.

Minneapolis: University of Minnesota, Department of Sociology Training Course for Social and Civic Work, Dr. F. Stuart Chapin, Chairman of Department.

Montreal: McGill University, School for Social Workers, Dr. C. A. Dawson, Director.

New Orleans: Tulane University, School of Social Work, Dr. G. P. Wyckoff, Director.

New York: Fordham University, School of Sociology and Social Service, Rev. Matthew L. Fortier, Dean.

New York: New York School of Social Work, Porter R. Lee, Director.

New York: Training School for Jewish Social Work, M. J. Karpf, Director.

Northampton: Smith College, School for Social Work, Dr. Everett Kimball, Director.

Philadelphia: The Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work, Kenneth L. M. Pray, Director.

Pittsburgh: Carnegie Institute of Technology, Department of Social Work, Mrs. Mary Clarke Burnett, Head of Department.

Portland: University of Oregon, Portland School of Social Work, Dr. Philip A. Parsons, Dean.

Richmond: College of William and Mary, School of Social Work and Public Health, Dr. H. H. Hibbs, Jr., Dean.

St. Louis: Washington University, George Warren Brown Department of Social Work, Frank J. Bruno, Director.

Washington: National Catholic School of Social Service, Rev. Karl J. Alter, Director.

In addition to the 29 schools which are members of the Association, some 10 universities and two independent schools offer training for social work, and many other colleges and universities give courses on social problems, often using much practical, concrete material from the field of social work. A study by the author of this article, based on the catalog material of 24 schools in the Association (*Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work, 1928*) showed that although 13 of the 24 schools were graduate schools, all but 4 admitted some students without degrees. Prerequisites in the social sciences were named by 15 schools; a social science major was required by 8; while 7 others listed previous courses in sociology, economics, and psychology as essential. One graduate school refused its certificate unless the prerequisites had been complied

with. For the most part the pre-professional sequence of courses was suggested rather than required. The 24 schools offered 42 different courses of study; 14 for one year; 13 for two years; one a 14 months' course; and 3 leading to the degree of Doctor of Philosophy.

Eighteen of the schools in their statements of the aims of education for social work recognize a common body of knowledge, philosophy, and methods. All the schools offered social case work, and all but one, field work in that line; 21 offered community organization, 9 with field work; 15 listed social statistics or social research, or both, 7 with field work; 17 had courses in child welfare, 12 in medical social problems; 11 in the administration of social agencies, 10 in psychiatry, 8 in the general field of social work or the history of social work, and 3 in social work and social philosophy. These, it should be recalled, were the courses offered. Only a tabulation of the students' schedules would show the courses actually taken. The tendency was to postpone specialization to the second year of the course.

A tabulation was made from the catalogs of the present positions occupied by the members of 65 classes in 8 schools who had completed courses for certificates or degrees. This showed that of the 541 employed, 59 per cent were in case work; 13 per cent in college or high school teaching; 2 per cent in teaching in schools of social work; 9 per cent in research; 6 per cent in group work; 5 per cent in community organizations; 5 per cent in industry or employment work; and 1 per cent in institutional work. Whether or not these social workers prepared themselves for the definite fields in which they were then employed is a question. In a study of the graduates of the New York School of Social Work, Walter Pettit found that 35 per cent were working in fields other than their specialties. (*Proceedings, National Conference of Social Work, 1925*, p. 681.)

Training in Special Fields. In addition to the more or less conventional opportunities for professional education offered by the schools considered in the preceding section are the many facilities for training in special fields for which national agencies are responsible. These opportunities are described in the topical articles relating to the specified fields, and little more than a bare mention of the more important schools or courses will be included here. Conspicuous among these are the following: The National Recreation School of the National Recreation Association; two colleges, one graduate school, and eight summer courses conducted under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association; a winter school and five summer schools maintained by the Young Women's Christian Association; and a Boy Guidance Department of the School of Education at the University of Nôtre Dame, sponsored by the Knights of Columbus. Most of the scouting organizations in varying degrees have organized short training courses for volunteer leaders, and one at least has given courses for professional employes. Summer camps are usually used by these organizations and the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association for their short courses. The number of colleges in which scouting organizations report courses in their fields runs into the hundreds. A more recent development is a whole year course offered for the first time in 1929 by Ohio State University in Columbus in cooperation with the Association of Community Chests and Councils for the training of community chest executives. In the case work field, the American Association of Hospital Social Workers has made an outstanding contribution to the development of professional education through the work of its educational secretary.

Institutes. This term is applied to a confusing variety of short term enterprises and short periods of education. The earliest institute was probably that organized by Mary E. Richmond in the family welfare field in 1910 under the Russell Sage Founda-

tion, and carried on since 1925 by the Family Welfare Association of America. A month's intensive training is given to a small group of selected, experienced workers. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES. Institutes of quite a different character are those organized in recent years by several state conferences of social work. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK. These offer from three to six sessions of about two hours each and are usually designated as being no substitute for professional training. From an analysis of 49 such courses, made for this article from state conference bulletins, it appears that the leaders have been outstanding persons from national agencies in 16 instances, from agencies in other states in 17 cases, and in 16 from their own state. In the courses of these institutes, social case work appeared 18 times, mental hygiene 7 times, and 13 other subjects covered 24 courses. A third type of institute is represented by the Institute for Social Work Executives held for the past three summers at Blue Ridge, N. C. This was organized to bring together executives in social agencies in the South, and representatives of national agencies and community chests, for the discussion of problems of common interest. The institute lasts for one week and is more truly a conference than a training course.

Developments and Events, 1929. Changes reported during the year by 20 of 29 schools in the Association of Schools for Professional Social Work were as follows: Increased enrollment of full-time students occurred in 10 of the 14 schools reporting on that point; under faculty changes 8 of the 16 schools reporting had added full-time instructors, and 3 had added part-time instructors; 27 new courses were reported by 14 schools. Three schools reported increased tuition fees and 6, additional scholarships or fellowships. Changes reported in field work were in the direction of the use of more agencies for the purpose, reported by 7 schools. More time of the school staff available for supervision was reported in 4 schools; an increase in the number of required hours in 6 schools; and field work arrangements at a state hospital for the insane, in one school. Three schools reported additional extension courses and increased enrollment. Few schools except those with regular quarter sessions conducted summer courses.

During the year the New York School took over the National Training School for Institution Executives; and Ohio State University offered the new course already mentioned for community chest executives. A special committee of the Association of Schools for Professional Social Work reported during the year on the question of financial aid to students. In December a special conference on training for social work in the South was held in Washington with attendance from 11 southern states. Six schools of social work, 10 other colleges or universities, 3 national agencies, and 2 foundations were represented. Increased endowments were reported by the Department of Social Work of Washington University at St. Louis and by the Graduate School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago. The growing recognition that an agency has a stake in the professional development of its staff was emphasized during the year by the announcement of the Cleveland Associated Charities that definite opportunities for study were to be provided. During the year a study was made under the auspices of the American Association of Social Workers relating to positions in the child welfare and vocational guidance fields.

The developments of 1929 raise many questions for the future, such as the following: What are the implications of the Milford Conference conclusions as to apprenticeship? What use can be made of the material available in the Job Analysis Series? How may professional schools supply more graduates, and what is the relationship between this need and the question of apprenticeship and financial aid to students? What influence will the new membership requirements of the American Association of Social

Workers have upon the recognized pre-professional sequence of the schools of social work? How are the universities which are proposing to organize schools of social work to be helped in their plans? What should be the relationship between specialized schools and the general schools of social work? Professional education will ever be a joint undertaking involving the agency, the profession, and the school; but with more facts available in 1930 it may be possible to note even more progress than has been here recorded for 1929.

CONSULT: Abbott, Edith: *Education for Social Work* (reprint from the Report of the United States Commissioner of Education), 1915; Steiner, Jesse F.: *Education for Social Work*, 1921; Tufts, James H.: *Education and Training for Social Work*, 1923; Walker, Sydnor H.: *Social Work and the Training of Social Workers* (contains a bibliography), 1928; *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific* (a report of the Milford Conference), Chapter XX (American Association of Social Workers), 1929; and Association of Schools of Professional Social Work: *Memorandum to Member Schools from the Committee on Standards of Professional Education for Social Work* (mimeographed), 1929, and *Report* of the Committee on Fellowships and Other Financial Aid to Students (mimeographed), 1929.

IRENE FARNHAM CONRAD

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22.

EDUCATION, STATE AGENCIES. Many functions closely related to social work are administered by state boards or departments of education or public instruction. Such agencies, together with similar ones in the fields of public welfare, labor, and health, represent the state in its responsibility for welfare activities. *See* SOCIAL WORK UNDER STATE GOVERNMENTS. The important forms of social work carried on by state educational agencies are merely named in this article. They are described in topical articles, covering the several fields in which state educational agencies in varying degrees are active. *See* Group 2, CHILDREN, Group 3, THE HANDICAPPED, and Group 6, HEALTH, of TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19.

The functions related to social work which are most frequently exercised by state educational agencies are naturally those most integrally connected with public school systems. Thus every state has accepted federal aid for vocational education under the Smith-Hughes Act and is carrying on work in that field, and all but six states[1] carry on civilian vocational rehabilitation with federal aid. In ten states[2] Americanization education is directed by state educational agencies; and in eight states[3] adult education other than Americanization (including work with illiterates) is similarly supervised. Ten states[4] supervise the enforcement of compulsory attendance and "child accounting" laws, and at least three of these states supervise also the local issuance of child labor certificates. In the field of child guidance, California has a bureau of mental hygiene and one of child study and parental education. The latter bureau is conducting an experiment with study groups for adults as a part of the public school system. Ohio has a supervisor of parental education, and Wisconsin employs two clinical psychologists. The Massachusetts division of university extension cooperates with other organizations in mental hygiene work.

In 12 states[5] educational agencies direct the education of blind, deaf, crippled, and illiterate children and those with speech disorders through institutions or special classes; and in 19 states[6] they supervise physical

[1] Delaware, Kansas, Vermont, Washington, Missouri, and New Hampshire.

[2] Alabama, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Massachusetts, Nebraska, Oregon, Rhode Island, South Dakota, and Wyoming.

[3] Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Wyoming, and South Carolina.

[4] Alabama, California, Connecticut, Delaware, Indiana, Michigan, New Hampshire, New York, Ohio, and Pennsylvania.

[5] Alabama, Arkansas, California, Connecticut, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

[6] Delaware, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, Ohio, West Virginia, Alabama, Cal-

education, or physical education together with health education. Colorado administers child welfare and mothers' aid laws, and New Hampshire administers child welfare laws. The states' administrative or supervisory powers in these different matters vary from establishing standards to exercising full responsibility for direct administration.

Developments and Events, 1929. Administrative developments of the year in state educational departments, in the several specified fields, include the following: Ohio appointed an assistant supervisor of special classes whose particular function is to find cases of physically handicapped children who can be taught only at home and provide for their teaching; New York appointed a field supervisor for physically handicapped children who must be a college graduate with three years' experience; and Connecticut established a division of field service which is to include work for the feebleminded. Ohio began the employment of a director of "child accounting"; Rhode Island consolidated responsibility for Americanization work and other evening classes in a division of adult education in the state department; New York assigned two supervisors to devote a major portion of their time to organizing classes for vocational education in metal and building trades; Virginia added to its department staff a state supervisor for guidance in trade and industrial education; Minnesota employed an agricultural specialist for work among disabled persons living on farms or having an agricultural background; Virginia transferred rehabilitation work to the state department of education from a separate bureau of rehabilitation; California was enabled through a gift of $20,000 to make a survey of mental hygiene, in which the educational department cooperated; and the New Jersey department broadened its division of health and physical education to cover supervision of medical and nursing service.

Legislation, 1929. The more important laws that were passed during the year increasing or otherwise changing the functions of state educational agencies in the specified matters are as follows: (a) Care of physically or mentally handicapped childern—Wyoming (Chs. 135 and 160) placing education of deaf and blind in the State Department, Division of Special Education, with provision for a full-time field agent for adult deaf and blind, and (Ch. 95) requiring the state director of special education or superintendent of training school or a person approved by them to give a psychological examination to applicants for commitment to institutions for the feebleminded; (b) Vocational guidance—New York (Ch. 407) requiring the State Department of Education to approve of all vocational and educational guidance service carried on in schools of the state and to establish the qualifications of the persons thus employed, also authorizing the appointment of a state supervisor of guidance and placement, and creating a Bureau of Vocational Guidance in the State Department of Education; (c) Rehabilitation—Connecticut, Maryland, and Texas authorizing civilian vocational rehabilitation work with federal aid; (d) Mothers' aid—New Hampshire (Ch. 145) transferring the administration of mothers' aid from the state educational agency to the State Board of Public Welfare; (e) Visiting teaching—Pennsylvania (amendment of April 11 to Sec. 1432, School Code) authorizing the State Board of Education to set standards for the employment of home and school visitors when employed in place of attendance officers.

EMERY M. FOSTER

EMPLOYERS' WELFARE WORK. *See* PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN INDUSTRY.

EMPLOYMENT. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT.

ifornia, Connecticut, Florida, Kentucky, Minnesota, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Utah, and Virginia.

Employment Agencies

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES. Two objectives have motivated the establishment of employment offices by governmental authorities and social agencies. Historically, these are: (1) counter-action of the flagrant abuses practiced by commercial agencies since regulatory legislation had failed to correct them, and (2) elimination of that unemployment which is due to lack of organized information regarding the labor market.

History and Present Status. Public employment offices have been established by cities, states, and the federal government, both alone and in conjunction with one another. In some instances counties have participated in their support. Municipal employment offices originated in Los Angeles in 1893, the year of "the Cleveland panic," and in the next 16 years spread irregularly to other cities on the Pacific coast and in the Northwest. During the depressions of 1907, 1913–1915, and 1920–1921 a number of cities established employment offices as part of their emergency relief program, but comparatively few of them survived. Close association with relief, scant appropriations, and politically appointed employes caused their failure. In 1929 only 17 municipalities were reported as maintaining such offices.

State legislation for public employment offices dates back to 1869. In that year California and New York each voted an appropriation for the maintenance of an employment bureau. Ohio, however, was the first state to create a system of offices. This occurred in 1890. By 1910, 17 states had statutes providing for a public employment service. Not all of them, however, had offices in operation. Considerable impetus was given the state employment service movement by the unemployment which developed in certain centers as early as 1911 and which continued into 1915. The movement was further accelerated by the need of machinery to recruit labor for wartime production and by the subsequent establishment of the United States Employment Service to meet that need.

Following the sudden and drastic curtailment of the federal service in 1919, certain states, in order partially to fill the gap thus caused and to assist in the placement of the demobilized, expanded their own employment offices. Since then, however, some of the state services have lost ground and others have ceased to function. At the end of 1929 the state appropriations for public employment offices were extremely meager, salaries much too low to attract the type of ability required, and quarters often far from suitable. Thirty-two states, however, had statutes for the creation of one or more state employment offices. Of these, 25 reported that in 142 different cities one or more permanent placement offices were in operation, supplemented in two instances by seasonal offices. All were cooperating with the United States Employment Service and in some instances with local authorities also. On the whole the offices maintained by state governments, whatever their limitations, have been more satisfactory than those maintained exclusively by municipalities. They have also shown a more persistent growth.

It was through the Bureau of Immigration that the federal government in 1914 and 1915 began the development of a nation-wide employment service. Its inability effectively to cope with the problem led in 1918 to the creation of the United States Employment Service. At once this Service began an extensive development of employment machinery. It subsidized state and city offices, thus enabling them to secure better quarters and additional personnel, and in states where there had been no offices it instituted them. In 1919, however, the entire field organization was discontinued, leaving only an administrative office in Washington. Since then the office has functioned chiefly as a coordinating agency for the state and city offices by collecting information on employment conditions and distributing this in the form of a monthly bulletin, and by granting these offices the franking privilege, providing forms, and in some instances paying in whole or part the

salaries of certain employes. In addition it has also maintained a Farm Labor Division and a Junior Division.

In December, 1929, the United States Employment Service was cooperating not only with state and city offices but also with offices maintained by chambers of commerce, the American Legion, Young Women's Christian Associations, and other comparable organizations. Through its Farm Labor Division the service was operating 11 permanent field offices in nine different states, and during the "open season" approximately 100 temporary offices. Also, through its Junior Division, it was cooperating with educational authorities in 15 states in the maintenance of junior placement offices. For the year 1929, in addition to providing standard forms and the franking privilege, the Service paid a total of $80,000 to cooperating state and local services, including the salaries of 209 employes assigned to them. For the calendar year of 1929 the United States Employment Service reported a total of 1,523,290 placements made through 188 offices maintained by states, municipalities, chambers of commerce, and other organizations.

Of the offices sponsored by voluntary effort, the California Labor Exchange established in 1868 was one of the earliest. By 1900 all the important family welfare societies in New York, Boston, Cleveland, and other large cities had made some provision for organized employment departments as an integral part of their case work. Most of these departments have since been discontinued or superseded by more specialized service for the handicapped. Experience has convincingly demonstrated the ineffectiveness of any general employment office operated by a relief agency. The function of a relief agency is inherently prejudicial to that of an employment office. The other social agencies which have organized employment services have designed them for particular handicapped groups in need of specialized assistance in securing employment. Some of these services, in operation before the outbreak of the World War, were absorbed by the United States Employment Service. Others developed during the progress of the war or subsequent to the armistice. Free employment bureaus have also been maintained by various fraternal, religious, and professional associations for the benefit of their members.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year both New York and Illinois initiated measures for the improvement of their state employment services. On June 13, the Industrial Commissioner of New York appointed an Advisory Committee on Employment Problems which on November 1 began a study of the State Employment Service. In Illinois the Advisory Board of the Free Employment Offices also began a reorganization of its offices. Prior to these events a special junior placement bureau was established in connection with the New York State Service and a Department for the Handicapped in connection with the Chicago office of the Illinois Service. Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Dayton, and other cities which organized a community program to meet the severe unemployment which developed after the crash of the stock market included provision for strengthening their public employment offices. In addition, steps were taken for the reintroduction in Congress of the Wagner Bill providing for federal subsidy to the states for the development of a nation-wide system of public employment offices.

During the year Delaware (Ch. 108) appropriated $2,500, conditional upon a like appropriation and expenditure by the city of Wilmington, for a state-city employment bureau. West Virginia amended and re-enacted its law (Ch. 12) but established no offices, and the city of Memphis established an employment office. A number of additional states passed laws providing for the licensing, regulation, and investigation of private employment agencies. In every case the law tends to eliminate abuses by making it more difficult for unfair agencies to operate. Laws were passed in: California (Ch.

89 and Ch. 215), Colorado (Ch. 145), Iowa (Ch. 49), Michigan (No. 321), Minnesota (Ch. 293), New York (Ch. 164), North Carolina (Ch. 178 and Ch. 345), Oregon (Ch. 297), Pennsylvania (No. 438), and Texas (Ch. 104). New York (Ch. 407) authorized its school authorities to maintain a Guidance Bureau, and in connection with this to conduct an employment service for pupils. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE. Finally the status of effective state regulation was placed in jeopardy by the decision of the United States Supreme Court in Ribnick v. McBride (48 Sup. Ct. 545), which declared that states have no right to fix the amount of fees to be charged by private employment agencies.

A slight ebb and flow occurred among social agencies in the establishment and curtailment of placement services. In several cities councils of social agencies were active in efforts to coordinate the work of private non-commercial agencies and the public offices. To this end the Welfare Council of New York City conducted two experiments—one in the clearance of unfilled demands for workers, and the other in the central reporting of employment statistics. In these experiments 39 employment offices in Greater New York cooperated.

CONSULT: Harrison, Shelby M., and associates: *Public Employment Offices, Their Purpose, Structure, and Methods*, 1924: Conner, J. E.: "Free Public Employment Offices in the United States," in United States Department of Labor *Bulletin No. 68*, pp. 1–115, January, 1907; American Association of Public Employment Offices: *Proceedings* of Annual Meetings, 1913, 1914, 1915, and 1916 (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin, Whole No. 192 and Whole No. 220); and International Association of Public Employment Services: *Proceedings* Annual Meetings, 1921–1925 and 1928, Ottawa Department of Labor, 1921–1925, 1927, and 1928 (United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Bulletin Nos. 311, 337, 355, 400, 414, and 501).

MARY LA DAME

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 584.

ENDORSEMENT OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. The term "endorsement" applies broadly to any process that seeks (a) to eliminate fraudulent solicitation of funds, and (b) to secure recognition of generally accepted minimum standards by individual agencies as a prerequisite for asking public support. When endorsement machinery is established, some elementary standards of the policies and practices of agencies in organization, accounting, promotion, and cooperation are usually formulated. Rarely, however, are standards set up as to the relative usefulness of different forms of social work, or the relative efficiency of agencies within a given field. As a result there is great diversity of opinion and practice as to how contributors may best obtain information that progress is being made in social work as a whole, or with reference to individual agencies.

History and Present Status. Givers took the initiative in attacking fraud. The chamber of commerce movement for "charities endorsement," beginning at Cleveland in 1900, had extended by 1910 to at least 15 large cities. Effective work in checking dishonest solicitation was followed by some success in making "endorsement" advantageous to agencies seeking to raise funds. Efforts were made to set up minimum standards, eliminate and forestall undesirable institutions, and effect amalgamations of overlapping agencies. No study of results attained during the period has ever been made. The Endorsement Committee of San Francisco, in 1902, first brought social agencies themselves into a partnership with givers. The more progressive endorsement committees have always been active in developing councils of social agencies, and have participated in the formulation of community programs leading to joint fund raising. In cities which maintain community chests, the earlier endorsement organizations have, in turn, been discontinued, or remained inactive or greatly modified. Information as to the exact situation is lacking. Officials

of community chests and other interested persons differ as to the usefulness of endorsement committees operating independently of chests. In Chicago, a non-chest city, an unusually effective endorsement service, begun in 1911, is maintained by the Association of Commerce through its Subscriptions Investigating Committee. It issues an annual classified list of approved agencies. In New York City the Bureau of Advice and Information, organized by the Charity Organization Society in 1905, supplies information on request to its own contributors, but without recommendation. The Boston Chamber of Commerce also maintains an information bureau. In each of these non-chest cities there are active councils of social agencies.

Plans to extend private endorsement service to national agencies were first discussed in 1912. In 1918 the need for accurate information concerning war charities brought into existence what is now the National Information Bureau, a cooperative organization of representatives of the contributing public and national agencies engaged in social, civic, or charitable work. The National Appeals Information Service renders a similar service for national Jewish organizations. Some experiments have been tried with the oft-heard proposal that endorsement, in at least its most limited form, should be made a government function. Massachusetts, for instance, requires its Department of Public Welfare to investigate all petitions by private charitable organizations for charters of incorporation. Inspections are made by the department, and annual reporting is required of all agencies. Actual endorsement, however, is never given unless the fact that incorporation is approved be so regarded. In Los Angeles all public appeals for funds must have the endorsement of the Department of Social Service. Experiences in this field need to be studied.

During the past 15 years large contributors to social work in American cities have extended their function as a group from one of auditing to include a larger and more direct share in control and management. Through the process of joint fund-raising two groups—givers and the representatives of social agencies—consciously or unconsciously have together entered the field of management. Although their attention has been centered very largely on the raising of funds, the implied responsibility of trusteeship for operation is now being suggested and discussed pro and con. A comprehensive study of this partnership between givers and agencies is yet to be made. A preliminary inquiry might well be devoted to ascertaining how effectually the results sought by earlier endorsement methods are now obtained in a different way, namely, through the gradual assumption of "trusteeship" rôles; to what extent endorsement committees have continued to serve, and with what experience; what provision is made in cities that maintain a chest, and have discontinued independent endorsement committees for the endorsement of agencies outside the chest; and in general what has been the influence of the two movements on each other in giving the public the assurance necessary to render effective the appeals that are made for adequate support of social work.

CONSULT: Chicago Council of Social Agencies: *The Financing of Social Agencies*, 1924; and Norton, William J.: *The Cooperative Movement in Social Work*, 1927.

DAVID H. HOLBROOK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

ENDOWMENTS IN SOCIAL WORK. *See* FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK.

EPILEPSY. The disorder known as epilepsy is characterized by abrupt, recurring attacks of impairment or loss of consciousness, with physical reactions varying from the briefest *petit mal* seizure to a complete general convulsion. While a complete etiology has not yet been ascertained, it would seem that usually some definite oc-

currence precipitates seizures in a predisposed person. There is difference of opinion as to the relative importance of heredity and environmental influences. A tendency to have convulsions may be inherent, or the result of altered brain structure, acted upon by products of disordered body or nerve cell chemistry, or perhaps consequent upon impairment of brain nutrition from faulty blood supply due to arterial spasm of certain cerebral vessels. Some contend that chronic spasm of arteries supplying blood to the brain induces the brain alterations. Such factor or factors, by excitation, inhibition, or other disturbance of brain function, may induce convulsions.

It is impossible to obtain an exact census of epileptics, owing to uncertainty in diagnoses, non-recognition of seizures, and reticence of relatives because of the attitude of the public. A conservative estimate is that probably three per thousand of the general population are epileptic. According to the latest census of epileptics taken January 1, 1923, there were 23,760 persons suffering from this disease in institutions of different types; one-third of these were in institutions which admitted epileptics only.

History and Present Status. The Ohio Hospital for Epileptics, the first separate institution in the United States, was opened in 1893. In 1929 nine states had special institutions, with a total of approximately 9,000 patients. This represents an increase of 670 in number of beds during the year.

The National Association for the Study of Epilepsy, organized in 1898, has held meetings throughout the country for the purpose of arousing interest in better provision for the care of epileptics, whether in special institutions or otherwise, and in further research as to the causes and method of treatment of the disease. In 1927 this organization became a section of the American Psychiatric Association. In 1928 the section's committee on standardization of statistics, in cooperation with the National Committee for Mental Hygiene and the Department of Mental Hygiene of New York State, prepared a uniform system for compiling statistics from institutions for epileptics which has been in use for the past two years.

Because convulsions are likely, epileptic children find it hard to obtain school advantages. In many schools pupils having the milder forms of epilepsy, particularly children of good mentality, are continued in regular classes. Detroit arranges for the brighter ones to have home training. In Chicago and elsewhere some are entered in special classes with provision for treatment, returning to their regular classes when improved. The general attitude toward these otherwise normal children seems to be more sympathetic than formerly. The feeble-minded epileptic children, however, are usually excluded from schools.

For older epileptics, earning capacity is gauged by the frequency of seizures rather than by ability. The difficulty of securing opportunities equal to those offered the average person often affects the epileptic so seriously that his reactions are in considerable part the result of this experience rather than the effect of the disorder. Socially, also, the epileptic is seriously handicapped. He should be advised against marriage, not only because of the possibility of transmitting his defect to his offspring, but also because the extra responsibility to be assumed might cause various abnormal reactions and prevent satisfactory adjustments. In many cases of long duration there appear slowing up and alterations in the physical and mental state which suggest permanent brain changes. Those who for various reasons, such as this gradual impairment of mentality or the severity or frequency of seizures, cannot be cared for in the home or community, are the usual applicants for institutional care. The ideal of the special institution is to provide the same outlets which are obtainable in the average community, e. g., education, regular work of some sort, athletics, amusements, and similar advantages, with a

minimum of restriction for patients of fair to good mentality.

In one instance the teaching staff of a state colony for epileptics cooperates with a neighboring state normal school under an arrangement which permits younger patients to receive elementary school instruction and normal school students to obtain practical experience in the teaching of special classes. All special institutions for the epileptic seek to maintain close relations with physicians and social workers, and several of the institutions conduct clinics.

More separate institutions to care for epileptics are needed. There is no particular objection to having insane or markedly feebleminded epileptics placed in the institutions provided for patients with similar mental conditions, but the considerable number of epileptics who do not show mental impairment suffer greatly from the enforced contacts which are almost inevitable if they are placed in institutions for mental cases.

Developments and Events, 1929. The state of Pennsylvania opened the Selinsgrove Colony for Epileptics during the year. This colony has accommodations for 120 patients. The Association for Research in Nervous and Mental Disease, meeting in New York City in December, 1929, gave an entire day to the discussion of research projects pertaining to the convulsive states. Among the investigations reported as under way during the year were those regarding blood supply to, and organic changes in, the central nervous system; water balance; and dietary control, especially excess of fats and minimum of carbohydrates.

Legislation, 1929. The general assembly in Iowa enacted a eugenics law (House files No. 243) which included epileptics in its provisions but made no appropriation for enforcing it. Michigan (Public acts 281) provided for the sterilization of epileptics, along with other mentally defective and criminal persons. Similar measures were proposed in several other legislatures but failed to pass.

CONSULT: Muskens, L. J. J.: *Epilepsy*, 1928; Lennox and Cobb: *Epilepsy* (Includes a bibliography), 1928; Shanahan, Wm. T.: "Problem of Epilepsy in New York State," in *Psychiatric Quarterly*, April, 1927; Collier, James: "Lumleian Lectures on Epilepsy," in *London Lancet*, March 24 and 31, and April 7, 1928; Turner, Wm. Aldren: "Observations on Epilepsy," in *Journal of Neurology and Psychopathology*, January, 1927; Rosett, Joshua: "Epileptic Seizure, Its Relation to Normal Thought and Normal Action," in *Archives of Neurology and Psychiatry*, April, 1929; Wilson, S. A. K.: "Some Aspects of the Problem of the Epilepsies," in *British Medical Journal*, October 26, 1929; and Fay and Winkelman: "Widespread Pressure Atrophy of the Brain and Its Probable Relation to the Function of the Pacchionian Bodies and the Cerebrospinal Fluid Circulation," in *American Journal of Psychiatry*, January, 1930.

WILLIAM T. SHANAHAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

EUGENICS. *See* EPILEPSY, MARRIAGE LAWS, MENTAL DEFICIENCY, MENTAL DISEASES, and VENEREAL DISEASES.

FAMILY BUDGETS, as the term is used by social agencies, are calculations of the minimum cost of maintaining a family of specified size under given circumstances in a manner which will keep its members healthy and in normal relationship to their communities. All agencies which give well-planned material relief to families must calculate budgets in each case in order to determine the amount of relief needed. The making of budgets in other fields of social work is less imperative; but medical agencies use them in gauging the ability of clients to pay for care, while workers with neglected or delinquent children frequently find them necessary as a basis for understanding the economic aspects of family life.

Schedules in use for calculating family budgets have been developed by home economists employed by family welfare agencies, by visiting housekeepers' associa-

tions, and in universities through cooperation between departments of home economics or sociology and social workers. These budgets differ somewhat in the living standards represented and in the extent to which they cover the items of necessary expenditure.

In building a budget schedule the necessary amount and kinds of food, clothing, fuel, household articles, and the like are selected, and the cost calculated at current prices. The food lists used follow approved dietary standards, interpreted in terms of the food materials in most common use among the families for whom the budget is intended. Clothing lists are based on studies relating to the kinds of garments preferred locally, and their durability. Costs of fuel, household articles, and miscellaneous items are estimated after studying the habits of the families concerned. Budgets should be revised about twice a year, to allow for changes in prices and customs, and in what in any community is generally regarded as a minimum normal standard of living. Scientific research in nutrition has altered accepted conceptions of what constitutes an adequate dietary. Larger amounts of milk and fresh vegetables have been included in budgets during the past few years. Styles in women's clothing have so changed that many articles on a clothing list of 1920 are no longer on the market. Gas has replaced oil lamps in most urban communities, and is in turn being displaced by electric lights, even in the poorer homes. The extension of social case work into the personality field has made it necessary to take into consideration new items of cost which influence the social life of families. Organizations not equipped to develop their own budget guides usually obtain material from a community in which conditions are similar. By making a local study of prices and home conditions, such material can be satisfactorily adapted if the lists of commodities on which the original estimates were based are available.

The most carefully compiled standard budget furnishes only a rough guide to be used in the study of the individual needs of each family. A family budget calculated on a basis of adequate living at minimum expense represents more than a "minimum of subsistence." It is common knowledge among family social case workers that there are self-sustaining families with incomes smaller than such a budget allows. Their manner of living was the subject of a study by Leila Houghteling (*The Income and Standard of Living of Unskilled Laborers in Chicago*, 1927, University of Chicago Press). Lists were furnished by 12 firms of unskilled and semi-skilled laborers who had been on their payroll for at least the previous year. From these were selected those families having at least one dependent child. The income received by each of the 467 families thus studied was compared with a budget calculated on the basis of the schedule prepared by the Chicago Council of Social Agencies. In 44.9 per cent the income fell below the estimated budget. These families were therefore subsisting on a standard for food, shelter, and other necessaries lower than the one allowed by the budget. During 1929 other studies were in progress in this field under the auspices of the Community Chest of Portland, Ore., and the New York City Budget Committee.

CONSULT: Joint Committee of the Charity Organization Society of New York, The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor and the United Hebrew Charities: *Good Nutrition and Adequate Food Allowances*, 1922, and *Clothing Allowance for the Family*, 1925; Cleveland Associated Charities: *Suggestive Budget for Families of Small Income*, 1928; Los Angeles Community Welfare Federation: *Study of a Minimum Standard of Living for Dependent Families*, 1927; Cincinnati League of Women Voters, Living Costs Committee: *Spending the Family Income*, 1928; Chicago Council of Social Agencies: *The Chicago Standard Budget for Dependent Families*, 1929 (revised edition); New England Home Economics Association: *Report of the Budget Council of Boston* (Blanche Dimond, Community Health Association, Boston), 1929; Indianapolis Council of Social Agencies: *A Guide to Family Budgeting*, 1929. Mimeographed budget

material is obtainable from the Family Welfare Association, Milwaukee; Hebrew Benevolent Society, Baltimore; Visiting Housekeepers Association, Detroit; Department of Home Economics, University of Washington, Seattle; Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York.

FLORENCE NESBITT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

FAMILY CASE WORK. *See* FAMILY WELFARE WORK.

FAMILY COURTS. *See* DOMESTIC RELATIONS COURTS.

FAMILY DESERTION. *See* DESERTION AND NON-SUPPORT.

FAMILY SOCIAL WORK. *See* FAMILY WELFARE WORK.

FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES constitute one of the largest groups in the field of social work. It is a group, however, whose ramifications are often not recognized by outsiders because of the many different names its local societies use. Some of these societies still bear such names as Charity Organization Society, Associated Charities, United Charities, Bureau of Charities, Provident Association, or Social Service League; but a majority of them either include "family welfare" or "family service" in their titles, or describe their work in these terms. These societies constitute only one of the eight groups which together make up the field of family welfare work as described in this volume. *See* FAMILY WELFARE WORK. In the other groups are family welfare agencies under public auspices, and family welfare societies of a sectarian character. The societies covered in this article are community wide and non-sectarian. They are the direct heirs of the charity organization movement of the last third of the nineteenth century, although all agencies engaged in social case work have derived much of their philosophy and practice from the same source.

History and Present Status. Of the societies listed in the directory of the Family Welfare Association of America, at least 15 were organized before 1879, and several have formally celebrated their fiftieth anniversaries during the past few years. The distinctive principles of the charity organization movement in the United States and Canada were derived from the London Charity Organisation Society, created in 1869. Its purpose, as Mrs. John M. Glenn has said, was to bring "order into a chaotic field of charitable relief"; and its method, as contrasted with the older, indiscriminate methods of almsgiving, was the organization of the charitable impulses and resources of the community on behalf of each family according to its needs, with an endeavor to develop the special capacities of each individual. These principles directly influenced the work of many societies in America during the next decade, as was evidenced by the formation of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society in 1877 and of other societies before 1879. Despite many vicissitudes in the development of the movement since then, it has in the main stood steadfastly for an old idea: the individualization of human needs and the strengthening of human capacities. St. Francis of Assisi and the Society of St. Vincent de Paul were among the early interpreters of this ideal; Octavia Hill, Thomas Chalmers, Sir Charles Loch, and others translated it into practice in England; while among its notable exponents in America have been such pioneers as Zilpha Smith, Alice Higgins Lothrop, Josephine Shaw Lowell, Mary E. Richmond, and others whose influence has lived after them. Miss Richmond's *Social Diagnosis*, published in 1917, after years of careful research, marked an epoch in the movement and is still a basic textbook in this as well as other fields of social case work.

Even in the early days of the movement there was a realization that in the family as a whole lay many of the problems as well as most of the possibilities of individual adjustment to normal life. Family social work gradually developed as a particular emphasis within the charity organization movement, and the attention thus centered upon the family as a social unit has increasingly found expression in the titles such societies have chosen. In the meantime the work of the family welfare society, in common with other forms of social case work, has been enriched by contributions from psychology, psychiatry, sociology, medicine, and other fields. *See* Social Case Work. Family social work in return has been a rich source of material for the social sciences; it has contributed to the development of social case work in the fields of child welfare, probation, visiting teacher work, mental hygiene, and medical social work, and has in turn profited by their experiences.

The functions developed in the early days included many activities in the organization of community forces. Since the charity organization society brought together agencies and individuals interested in the treatment of distress, community organization might have become a major function. However, a turning point in the movement was marked in 1919 by the report of a committee on future scope and policy (appointed by what was then the American Association for Organizing Charity), which expressed the conviction that the family rather than the community "should be regarded as the peculiar unit of charity organization," and suggested that the words "family social work" be incorporated in the titles of local agencies.

In line with the trend which that report evidenced, community organization functions have been gradually released or shared with other agencies through councils of social agencies or community chests, but the family welfare society has continued to carry on many other community activities. *See* Community Chests and Councils. For example, it has frequently assumed leadership in movements for housing reform, juvenile courts, marriage laws, or other forms of social legislation. Observing the conflict and lost motion between agencies in the care of individual families, it has been widely instrumental in organizing social service exchanges through which social agencies may coordinate their services to clients. *See* Social Service Exchanges. Developed at first in most instances within the family welfare societies, the majority of these exchanges have since become independent agencies or have been transferred to councils of social agencies or community chests. This "incubating process," for activities which require demonstration before receiving independent support, has sometimes also been followed in the development of children's departments, legal aid bureaus, and less frequently in anti-tuberculosis and public health activities which have later been launched as separate organizations. For similar demonstration purposes many family welfare societies have carried on investigation and follow-up work for public and private relief agencies, juvenile courts, hospitals, children's homes, and other agencies. With the development of special case work facilities in these agencies, however, the family society has gradually abandoned this practice in most large communities.

Another important contribution of the movement to the general field of social case work was the organization and development of the so-called transportation agreement. That agreement was administered first under a "field department," to be presently described, and later through the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation. After 1921, when its administration passed into the hands of an independent body, the Committee on Transportation of Allied National Agencies, the executive functions were carried by a staff member of the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work until 1927. *See* Transportation of Clients.

Family Welfare Societies

In the early years the National Conference of Charities and Correction served as the only regular medium of exchange of ideas and inspiration for workers in the family welfare field. Its service was supplemented by occasional personal conferences, wide consultation by local executives through correspondence with a few leaders, and by the publications of some of the larger agencies. In 1897 there were definite expressions of desire for a national association of charity organization societies. Partly as a result of that demand an exchange of leaflets, reports, office forms, and financial appeal letters was organized in 1905 among a group of 14 societies. This was brought about by Mary E. Richmond, then secretary of the Society for Organizing Charity at Philadelphia, and the exchange was conducted by the Charities Publication Committee, publishers of *Charities and the Commons*, as part of its new Field Department, organized for the printing and distribution of charity organization literature to be used in an extension movement. The periodical mentioned, now the *Survey*, was then sponsored by the New York Charity Organization Society. Miss Richmond became editor of the new Department, and two years later Francis H. McLean, who had been assisting in the earlier work, became full-time secretary, a grant having been obtained from the Russell Sage Foundation for the enlarged program. In 1909, when Miss Richmond became director of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, that Department assumed the functions of the previous Field Department, Mr. McLean continuing as field secretary. Through these channels an increasing degree of cohesion developed, resulting in 1911 in the creation of the National Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, of which Mr. McLean became the first secretary. Continuing the functions which he exercised for four years, and with a natural genius for the blending of ideas to meet local situations, he succeeded in giving great impetus to the growth of the movement, and assistance in the field work was soon necessary. Since 1920, when a separate Executive Department was created with David H. Holbrook as director, Mr. McLean has devoted himself primarily to direction of the field work. This departmental separation continued until 1924, when Mr. Holbrook was made Executive Secretary of the Association, from which position he resigned in 1925. (For the present departments of the national association see its listing in Part II of this volume.)

By 1918 the need for further orientation led to the appointment, already referred to, of a committee on future scope and policy, and its far-reaching recommendations were adopted a year later. Among these was a change in the organization's name to the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, as evidence of the emerging recognition that the welfare of the family was the central purpose of its member societies.

Since 1911 the number of societies and the volume of work have grown greatly. Of the 347 agencies now listed in the directory of the national association, about one-half have been organized since that year. The 234 member agencies had under care in 1929 the impressive number of 380,000 families, representing approximately 1,700,000 persons. Along with the development of standards, and a growing insistence upon the value of social case work as the essential service has gone a greater emphasis upon adequacy of relief where it is needed. Partly because of this, and partly as a result of community factors which cannot be discussed here, relief expenditures increased over 200 per cent in the decade following 1916. *See* "The Relief Problem in Family Social Work," in *The Family*, March, 1929.

In spite of this financial pressure and the accompanying volume of work, family welfare societies have become increasingly interested in those constructive forces in family life upon which the development of the individual so largely depends. This concept led to the choice of "Family Life in America Today" as the subject (suggested by Miss Richmond) for the Fiftieth Anni-

versary of the Charity Organization Movement in America, celebrated by an international conference at Buffalo in 1927.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Early in the history of the charity organization movement there came a realization that the "charity visitor" must possess special qualifications for an exacting task; and that "the art of helping people out of trouble" called not only for zeal and a warm heart, but for the best existing knowledge and practice in assisting people toward adjustments involving both their personalities and their social relationships. Training classes and study groups, in which volunteer workers frequently participated, were organized in several societies. Suggestions for a training school were made in 1893, and Miss Richmond's effective plea in 1897 for professional training facilities was soon followed by the establishment of what is now the New York School of Social Work, under the auspices of the New York Charity Organization Society. Since then many other schools have been established, some independently and many under the auspices of colleges and universities. Because of its fundamental approach to social case work problems, and the fact that it is usually the largest social agency in each community, the family welfare society frequently serves as a field work training center for these schools. The same factors have also caused the staff of the family society to be drawn upon widely in the recruiting and training of personnel for other case work agencies.

Professional school preparation is now given preference by a majority of family welfare societies; but the comparatively low salaries available for beginners and the inadequate number of available graduates force most agencies to fall back upon the apprentice method of training. This in turn serves to discourage attendance at the schools, since many young people prefer apprentice training, with even a low salary, to the more expensive if more thorough school preparation. Some family welfare executives also still feel that two years of carefully supervised experience gives a more practical preparation for the job than the same period spent in a good school of social work. The truth is that neither apprentice nor school preparation alone results in qualifications adequate to the exacting demands of social case work with families under modern conditions. Many teachers of social case work agree that school preparation alone does not result in a "trained worker" in a practical sense; while, on the other hand, a person trained only through practical experience generally lacks a part of the background which is increasingly necessary for professional advancement. A proper balance may be struck when one or two years of "interneship" or supervised experience is required after preparation in a graduate school, and when this combination is given the preference in salary and status over three or four years of practical experience alone.

Professional preparation is of course only one of the qualifications of the family welfare worker. Equally important are personality, general cultural background, maturity, and good health. Family welfare societies are placing increased emphasis upon those qualities of personality which enable a case worker to win the sympathy and full participation of the client. A similar emphasis is placed upon general educational background. Of the 312 family welfare workers responding to a recent questionnaire, more than two-thirds were college graduates. Although there has been some concern over the youth or immaturity of many new workers, this may gradually be corrected through increasing emphasis upon longer preparation. And finally, pressure of work and the demands upon spiritual and nervous energy make reasonably good health even more essential than in many other professions.

During this period of increasing emphasis upon professional training the status of the volunteer or unpaid worker has varied. In the early days the "friendly visitor" was frequently the principal channel of contact

with families, and many of the outstanding early leaders of the movement were laymen. But as the work has increased in volume and changed in character, many agencies have made decreasing use of volunteers in dealing directly with families, while the best informed laymen have frequently felt that case work demands a background of knowledge and experience which they do not possess, and have contented themselves with service through boards and committees and participation in community activities. Such a conclusion overlooks the fact that there are many degrees and types of case work skill required in different family situations, and that an intelligent and sympathetic volunteer may frequently be able to perform certain services as well as the case worker or even better. Many family societies are therefore giving renewed attention to volunteer service, assigning special staff members to work with laymen, or conducting classes or discussion groups, all with a view toward the spreading of the knowledge and philosophy of case work in the community. The best social case worker is the one who knows how to make discriminating use of the abilities of laymen, whether for service on boards or committees, in district or case conferences, in community activities, or in case work itself.

Developments and Events, 1929. If one were to judge solely by the reports made to the Year Book from workers in this field, family welfare societies were most concerned during the year with the following problems: a better division of work with other agencies; the development of family social work under public auspices; renewed attention to the use of volunteers; better professional training methods and facilities; a great variety of special local studies; and more effective public interpretation. There was a marked effort toward clearer division of functions, with a tendency in some communities toward an acceptance by other case work agencies of relief responsibility as a part of their treatment programs, instead of assuming that all relief must come from the family agency. Several societies reported the development or reorganization of public welfare departments on a case work basis, this being due in varying degrees to the influence of the private societies. An interesting experiment made in one city, in order to facilitate a better understanding, was the centering of all relations with courts in the hands of one staff member. During the year many cities organized special classes or study groups for volunteers, one being for colored volunteers. There was increased use of a central bureau or clearing house for volunteers, through which laymen might find opportunities for service in the type of work for which they were best fitted. One society endeavored to develop a special advisory service from psychiatrists, physicians, insurance experts, clergymen, and other professional groups.

Reports direct to the national association and to the Department of Statistics of the Russell Sage Foundation indicated a continuance during the year of the increase in relief expenditures and case-loads of family welfare societies. In some instances this increase was so great as to force a radical limitation of intake of new cases, or even an elimination of cases already under care, with consequent suffering, misunderstanding, and dissatisfaction in the community. Although unemployment, largely technological, has been great for the past several years, it was aggravated by the industrial depression which began in the latter part of 1929. In June, to assist local societies in planning for unemployment emergencies, the national association issued a report of its Committee on Industrial Problems, entitled *The Time to Plan is Now.* Several editions of this report were required to meet the large demand. During the year also the Personnel Problems Committee of the Association issued a report showing a very large local staff turnover in the family welfare field, and raising many questions of significance to local agencies.

The year in the history of the national organization was significant in the decision

of its members to adopt a new name, Family Welfare Association of America. For the future development of the family welfare movement probably the most important event of the year was the issuance of a preliminary report by the national association's committee on future program. That committee had been appointed in 1927 as a result of the continued increase in volume of the work and expenditures of local societies, the need of orientation in the whole field, and the pressure of demands on the national office. Among the tentative recommendations of the committee's report, to be revised and published in 1930, perhaps the most important were those relating to relief and the functions of family welfare agencies. It was suggested that the major responsibility for relief expenditures must be recognized as resting upon public tax funds on condition that adequate governmental agencies be developed for the administration of necessary types of relief, and the family welfare societies should gradually limit their relief responsibility to that which is incidental to their treatment of family problems.

CONSULT: Watson, F. D.: *Charity Organization Movement in the United States*, 1922; McLean, F. H.: *The Family Society*, 1927; Milford Conference: *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific* (American Association of Social Workers), 1929; Richmond, Mary E.: *Social Diagnosis*, 1917; Colcord, J. C.: *Broken Homes*, 1919; Marcus, Grace F.: *Some Aspects of Relief in Family Case Work* (New York Charity Organization Society), 1929; Family Welfare Association of America: *The Time to Plan is Now*, 1929; and files of *The Family* and *News Letter*, published by the Family Welfare Association of America.

LINTON B. SWIFT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

FAMILY WELFARE WORK. The term "family welfare work" is used in this volume to describe one of the fields of social case work —the one in which families are taken under care because of a need which applies to the family as a whole rather than to any one of its members. Like the inclusive field of social case work itself, family welfare work covers not only agencies in this particular line which use the processes of social case work, but all agencies to which those processes are potentially applicable. (*See* SOCIAL CASE WORK.) The included groups are described in articles on FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES, MOTHERS' AID, PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES, RELIEF SOCIETIES, PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK, CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK, JEWISH SOCIAL WORK, and MORMON SOCIAL WORK. For the four last-named articles family welfare work is but one of the forms of social activities included. The processes of social case work, when thus used in the family welfare field, are usually called "family case work." Family case work and community activities directed toward the welfare of families are two essential aspects of the function commonly referred to as "family social work."

FEDERAL GOVERNMENT, CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES. *See* CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

FEDERATIONS OF SOCIAL AGENCIES. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS. *See* MENTAL DEFICIENCY.

FINANCIAL FEDERATIONS. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

FOREIGN-BORN and FOREIGN LANGUAGE PRESS. *See* IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES.

FOSTER HOMES. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN and DELINQUENT CHILDREN, FOSTER HOME CARE.

FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK. The endowment or permanent setting aside of funds for worthy public purposes can be

traced back many centuries, but the most significant developments in this field have occurred since about 1900. While the term "foundation" in a few cases was applied to these earlier funds, it has come into more common usage since the beginning of the twentieth century. Coincident with the greater use of the term has also come the introduction of two features which have tended to give the designation special meaning and which have undoubtedly played major roles in winning for foundations an important place among American organizations for human betterment. One of these was the broadening of the chartered purposes so that, instead of being tied up indefinitely to services which the community or nation may have outgrown, as in the classic instance of the fund established to help victims of the Barbary pirates, foundations could change their activities to meet changing needs, the new boundaries to work being flung as far and wide as "the improvement of social and living conditions," "promoting the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding," or "promoting the well-being of mankind throughout the world." The second feature has been the very great increase in the size of funds established for these purposes, the combined endowment of the ten largest foundations, all of them established since 1900, aggregating over $600,000,000, and their total grants from income alone running well up toward three hundred millions.

History and Present Status. In the sense in which the term is now commonly used probably the first foundation to be established in this country in the broad field of social improvement was the Peabody Fund, set up in 1867 with a principal sum of over $2,000,000 and discontinued in 1914, although the Smithsonian Institution—established "for the increase and diffusion of knowledge among men," with a capital fund of something over $500,000, and antedating the Peabody Fund by some twenty years—might lay some claim to first place. Then came the John F. Slater Fund in the year 1882; the Baron de Hirsch Fund in 1890; the Thomas Thompson Trust in 1901; the Carnegie Institution of Washington in 1902; the General Education Board in 1903; the Milbank Memorial Fund in 1905; the Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching in 1906; the Russell Sage Foundation in 1907; the Anna T. Jeanes Foundation and the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund in 1908; the Carnegie Corporation and the Phelps-Stokes Fund in 1911; and in later years a host of others, including the very large endowments represented by the Rockefeller Foundation and the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial, the latter now consolidated with the other Rockefeller benefactions. In a new list of American foundations just compiled (1930) for the Russell Sage Foundation Library by Bertha F. Hulseman, the total is seen to have reached over 150. Similar lists compiled for that Library showed 23 in 1915 and 33 in 1922; but the numbers more than doubled in the next two years, reaching 77 in 1924, and in two more years almost quadrupled, running to 121 in 1926.

The Community trust, which like the endowed foundations receives bequests of funds, and aims through charter stipulations and its form and methods of organization to keep its program flexible and adaptable to changing community conditions, has also come into existence and has had its largest development during the last two decades. Beginning with the Cleveland Foundation, organized in 1914 by the late Frederick H. Goff, these trusts or local foundations had reached a total of 50 by 1924 and approximately 60 by 1929. The usual plan is for their funds to be held by trust companies and the disbursement of income to be directed by a committee, a minority of whose members are appointed by the trust company, the others being selected by local public officials. Some of these trusts are as yet without funds, but over half of the total had received bequests and contributions by 1929, the total of which ran upward of $32,000,000. One of the largest is the New York Community Trust, with $8,500,000. They

are as widely placed as Boston and Los Angeles, Spokane and Atlanta, and are almost entirely local in scope.

While the total number of foundations, plus funds and community trusts having kindred characteristics, is seen to run well over 200, those which are related more or less directly to the broad field of national social work, or which conduct or support local research likely to be of national significance, appear to be about 67, or nearly one-third of the total. These may be roughly divided into five groups:

Foundations of generally broad scope which carry on or support research, experimentation, or other activities in several fields:

Brookings Institution
Carnegie Corporation of New York
Carnegie Institution of Washington
Commonwealth Fund
Daniel and Florence Guggenheim Foundation
General Education Board
Golden Rule Foundation
Harmon Foundation
John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation
Julius Rosenwald Fund
Nathan Hofheimer Foundation
New York Foundation
Phelps-Stokes Fund
Rockefeller Foundation
Russell Sage Foundation
Spelman Fund of New York

Foundations working primarily in the health field, physical or mental, including public health and medical research:

Alice McDermott Memorial Fund
American Association of Obstetricians, Gynecologists, and Abdominal Surgeons Foundation
American Foundation for Mental Hygiene
Brush Foundation
Colorado Foundation for Research in Tuberculosis
Edward L. Trudeau Foundation for Research and Teaching in Tuberculosis
Emil and Fannie Wedeles Fund for the Study and Investigation of Diseases of Heart and Circulation
Foundation for Positive Health
International Dental Health Foundation for Children
James H. Hyslop Foundation
John S. Oliver Memorial Research Foundation
Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation
Leopold Schepp Foundation
Lifwynn Foundation
Lucius N. Littauer Foundation
Milbank Memorial Fund
Murry and Leonie Guggenheim Foundation
Pediatric Research Foundation of the Children's Hospital of Cincinnati
Sturgis Fund of the Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation
Thomas Thompson Trust

Primarily for child welfare or the education of children (not including foundations primarily for medical research in relation to children):

Behavior Research Fund
Child Education Foundation
Children's Foundation
Children's Fund of Michigan
Duke Endowment, Orphan Section
Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund
Judge Baker Foundation

For other special, specified purposes, including in some cases both promotion and research:

American Foundation for the Blind
American Fund for Public Service
Baron de Hirsch Fund
Bureau of Social Hygiene
Carnegie Foundation for the Advancement of Teaching
E. O. Robinson Mountain Fund
Economic Foundation
Genetic Foundation
Human Betterment Foundation
J. C. Penney Foundation
John F. Slater Fund
Matilda Ziegler Foundation for the Blind
Negro Rural School Fund, Anna T. Jeanes Foundation
Payne Fund
Planning Foundation of America
Pollak Foundation for Economic Research
Race Betterment Foundation
Scripps Foundation
Twentieth Century Fund
University Film Foundation

Foundations conducting local research, not specialized, which is of more than local significance:

Buffalo Foundation
Cleveland Foundation
Trounstine Foundation
Wieboldt Foundation

Because many foundations carry on varied types of work, the division titles used in such a classification can be only approximately correct in describing the fields covered. Nevertheless, the list will give some indication of the lines of interest represented.

While these foundations and trusts have much in common, there is considerable diversity as to the geographical area in which they operate, in their methods of work and, as has been seen, in the fields chosen for special cultivation. Some, for example, limit their work to the city in which they are

situated; others to the state or nation, while the scope of a few is world-wide. Some are empowered to use only the income from their principal fund, while others may distribute both income and capital; and in a few instances a time limit (usually 25 or 30 years) has been set within which the total amount must be disbursed. Some engage in no work as an operating agency, but pursue their purposes by the making of grants; others maintain permanent staffs and carry on work under their own auspices; and a few do both. While practically all are permitted wide latitude as to the activities in which they may engage, most of them have, for the time being, selected broad but specific fields in which to operate.

A very large proportion of the foundations, it will be observed, devote their energies to research and the support of education, the feeling apparently growing among those responsible for foundation programs that these are highly appropriate functions for tax-exempt and quasi-public institutions of this sort. And the call for public service of this type in an age of such kaleidoscopic change as the present, when new knowledge essential to the understanding of new social situations lags behind, would seem to offer ample opportunity for their resources and powers. As Frederick P. Keppel puts it, "the discovery and distribution of facts from which men and women may draw their own conclusions offers the foundation a field sufficiently wide and sufficiently vital to the welfare of humanity." Dr. Keppel is quick to recognize, however, as do many others, that in practice many exceptions to such general principles are found necessary, and that even in the support of research and education these terms often need fairly liberal interpretation. The great interest and activity in social research which has been manifested during the last decade or two have without doubt been due in part to the rise of the large philanthropic foundations and their growing appreciation of its value.

Demonstrations—which often include certain types of research and educational work and which aim to test methods and set example rather than to establish institutions and programs for permanent outside support—have also found some favor with the foundations. The latter do not ordinarily engage in relief work nor do they grant charitable aid to individuals. Following the principle that "the endowed foundation should not relieve contemporary society of its obligation to support its own day-by-day charitable work, these foundations do not ordinarily contribute to the budgets of welfare agencies."

The headquarters of most of the national foundations are in New York City; the others for the most part are found in Chicago, Washington, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, Cleveland, Detroit, Buffalo, and Cincinnati.

CONSULT: Hulseman, Bertha F.: *American Foundations* (Bulletin of Russell Sage Foundation Library, listing over 150 foundations, and indicating their purpose, activities, resources, and officers), Revised Edition, 1930; Keppel, Frederick P.: *The Foundation*, 1930; Williams, Pierce: *Endowed Foundations in the United States of America*, 1927; Ogg, Frederic A.: "Foundations and Endowments in Relation to Research in the United States of America" (Chapter XV in *Research in the Humanistic and Social Sciences*), 1928; Pritchett, Henry S.: "*The Use and Abuse of Endowments*," in *Atlantic Monthly*, October, 1929; Rosenwald, Julius: "Principles of Public Giving," in *Atlantic Monthly*, May, 1929; Twentieth Century Fund: *American Foundations and Their Fields* (a diagram), 1930.

SHELBY M. HARRISON

FRATERNAL ORDERS. Membership in a fraternal order implies and is usually stated to include a measure of mutual responsibility among the members for each other's welfare. On this basis practically all fraternal orders have welfare projects as prominent features of their programs. Two general types of orders should be distinguished: benefit orders, which insure their members; and non-insurance orders. Benefit orders commonly offer aid in time of sickness, and other assistance in family problems in addition to insurance; and non-insurance orders usually give assistance, in institutions or

otherwise, to members who are in distress from sickness or other causes. Both groups ordinarily restrict their formal welfare projects to members and their families. Associations of veterans, while not fraternal orders in the usual sense, have similar welfare undertakings and are therefore considered in this article.

History and Present Status. The first organized welfare project of a fraternal order was a Masonic orphanage in California, established in 1850. Five years later the Independent Order of B'nai B'rith founded an institution in New Orleans, not restricting admissions to children of its members. The Masons followed in 1867 with an orphanage in Kentucky. Through the remainder of the nineteenth century a few orders built an increasing number of institutions. According to the Bureau of the Census (*Children under Institutional Care, 1923*), 13 orders were at that time giving this kind of organized care to 9,700 children in their institutions. Early in the present century two fraternal orders established large national institutions. The Junior Order, United American Mechanics, now has two such homes for children of members—one at Tiffin, O., and the other at Lexington, N. C. Mooseheart, under the auspices of the Loyal Order of Moose, with a population of about 1,200, is a national institution founded to accept into residence families of fatherless children with their mothers. This, of course, proved to be of limited practicability, and many children are received without their mothers. In 1924–1925 the Order of Moose inaugurated an "extension plan" under which mothers with families are subsidized, in cooperation with local social agencies, so that they may remain in their own homes. More children are now being cared for in this way and at a smaller expense than in Mooseheart.

The program of the Veterans of Foreign Wars centers around a farm-school project, restricted to the children of veterans and administered in the tradition of the older fraternal welfare movements. The program of the American Legion is radically different from that of any other order in its cooperation with existing social agencies and its broad assumption of responsibility for child welfare projects. Two of the Legion's state branches have very small institutions, but the order has no national institution. The national office employs a staff of trained social workers in five areas of the country, and local Legion posts cooperate closely with health agencies and social agencies of every kind in caring for the children of veterans. Support of welfare legislation is a major activity, and a relief fund of $100,000 a year is administered from national headquarters in Indianapolis as temporary aid to cases for which local posts are making permanent plans.

Space does not permit listing all of the orders and their projects. There are no central statistics, but among types of service carried on are the following: The Independent Order of B'nai B'rith operates five regional children's homes; the Masons operate 33 institutions in 30 states, and give direct relief to widows and families through local lodges; the Brotherhood of American Yeomen has a national children's home in addition to paying insurance benefits, and gives much voluntary relief locally; the Independent Order of Red Men subsidizes widows and children; the Elks carry on much local social work and have few institutions; the Shriners support hospitals for crippled children; the Woodmen of the World have a tuberculosis sanatorium; the Loyal Order of Moose maintains Mooseheart in Illinois for fatherless children and widows and Moosehaven in Florida for aged members, besides maintaining an extension subsidy service in their own homes for widows and children and for a few aged couples; the Odd Fellows have 40 institutions in 35 states; the Knights of Pythias and many orders among the foreign-born support institutions, large and small. Other forms of assistance include student funds provided by Masons; health centers supported by the Women's Benefit Association; hospital

service for members of the Brotherhood of American Trainmen; and aid to convents and schools by the First Catholic Slovak Ladies' Union. The list is not complete, but it indicates that aid to children and aged members is the principal form of assistance.

There are generally no training requirements for employment in the welfare work of fraternal orders. Exceptions are the personnel of the American Legion's National Child Welfare Division, the case work staff of Mooseheart, and the medical services of many other orders. For some years the Child Welfare League of America maintained a department for cooperation with fraternal orders, and their relations with social agencies have been promoted by that means. The literature of the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor is widely used. Proposals have been made for the organization of a central body or council representing the welfare work of the lodges, with social workers as consultant members. In general, the orders are increasingly conscious of the value of social work of a professional type, but are handicapped by tradition in the raising of standards and by the necessity of using their welfare features in appealing for increased membership. They are, however, a great reservoir of potential welfare power.

CONSULT: *The Yeomen Shield* (Des Moines, Iowa), January, 1929; *Social Forces* for December, 1929; and issues of *The Fraternal Monitor* (Rochester, N. Y.).

C. W. ARESON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

FREEDOM OF SPEECH and FREEDOM OF THE PRESS. *See* CIVIL LIBERTIES.

FRESH AIR CAMPS. *See* SUMMER CAMPS AND DAY OUTINGS.

FRIENDLY SERVICES. *See* SOCIETIES FOR FRIENDLY SERVICES.

GIRL SCOUTS. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

GIRLS' BOARDING HOMES. *See* HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN.

GIRLS' CLUBS. The girls' clubs described in this article are manifestly quite different in character from the boys' clubs described in the article on that topic. They represent an older group, consisting almost entirely of employed girls and young women. For clubs for younger girls, and girls' clubs under other auspices than those here described, *see* SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS, YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS (Girls' Friendly Societies, Young Women's Christian Associations, and Young Women's Hebrew Associations), and the girls' organizations included under SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS. *See also* HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN and SUMMER CAMPS AND DAY OUTINGS.

History and Present Status. In 1881 a few women employed in garment factories in New York City, drawn together by a common desire for recreation and self-improvement, started a club—one of the first working women's clubs in the United States of which there is any record. They asked a wealthy woman of education and culture, who was their Sunday-school teacher, to direct it. The attitude of the members is shown in the remarks recorded in the minutes of a business meeting: "Girls are independent; they want no patronage but rather an opportunity to govern and do for themselves. Our organization is truly a child of the daughters of labor. Our fathers and mothers work; before them their fathers and mothers worked; and we, too, work. Let us call ourselves the 'Working Girls' Society' and show New York that we are not afraid of work." The club grew rapidly, soon reaching a membership of 150. A dressmaking class was started and a circulating library of 500 volumes collected. With the exception of gifts received for the original furnishing of the clubroom, the club was self-supporting.

By 1885 eight clubs of this sort had been formed among industrial workers in New York City, and these clubs were federated in the New York Association of Working Girls' Societies, whose stated purpose was "to promote the physical, intellectual and moral advancement of women workers and to afford them opportunities for friendly association and intelligent cooperation." To be eligible for membership a club for working women had to be nonsectarian, self-governing, and aiming toward self-support, with a record of not less than six months of organized life in the city of New York or its vicinity. The first convention was held in New York in 1890, with delegates representing 2,000 club members and 75 clubs.

Between the years 1885 and 1891 similar clubs were being organized in Massachusetts, Connecticut, and Pennsylvania. In 1889 eight Massachusetts clubs formed a state league like that of New York; in 1891 Connecticut federated six clubs and eastern Pennsylvania three into state bodies. In 1897 a further step in organization was taken when these five state leagues banded together to form the National League of Women Workers.

The growth of clubs followed the path of the woman worker and was concentrated early on the Atlantic seaboard. While it is true that the real strides in the improvement of the condition of working women were to come through economic and legislative action, there can be no question of the educational value of these club groups. The insistence in the clubs on the principles of self-government and self-support gave members a chance to assert themselves and to develop initiative in the administering of club programs and finances. Club programs provided recreation and mental stimulation in the form of talks by teachers and civic leaders. In addition the presence, in places of leadership, of women of education and vision who were not "uplifters" but who saw in the club movement an opportunity to enlarge their own experience through contact with working women, and who, moreover, had "advanced" ideas as to working hours and opportunities, served to focus the attention of these early groups on the fundamental problems of the working woman—her working conditions, her living conditions, and her opportunities for recreation and education.

In 1892 the New York organization founded the Alliance Employment Bureau to secure positions for women under the best conditions and wages obtainable. This bureau was affiliated with 24 organizations in New York City, and formed the model for employment work in the city. Interest was next centered upon the closely related question of trade training for women; the first school to provide vocational training for women—later to become the Manhattan Trade School for Girls—had its roots in this group.

Housing was early recognized as a most important problem, and the unique idea was conceived of a working women's hotel in New York City that should not depend upon charitable contributions or endowments but should be a self-supporting venture, and should, moreover, have no rules or regulations except such as govern any hotel. The result was the Virginia Hotel in 1911 (rebuilt in 1928), followed later by the Irvin, and later still by the Sutton, opened in 1930.

The inexpensive summer vacation was also stressed in all states, and practically every state organization had its vacation house at the seashore or in the mountains. The buildings were generally donated but the administration was often, as with the clubs, in the hands of the members themselves.

The World War gave great impetus to the club movement because of the general interest in organized recreation to offset the strain of high pressure work in munitions factories and elsewhere. Employers were eager to have their employes join clubs, and in some communities contributed a large part of the initial expense of launching a club. In 1921 the total membership in

girls' clubs was 18,000, federated in six strong state associations and a strong national organization—the National League of Women Workers, which name was later changed to the National League of Girls' Clubs. A national convention which discussed principles and policies was held biennially by the League.

From its beginnings the National League helped to formulate fundamental principles and assisted the state leagues and clubs to carry them out through the medium of its council and its field secretaries. When club work was in its infancy and the club leader a volunteer worker, the national organization recognized the need for trained leadership and opened a training course for its own leaders and for outsiders. It became an authority on the organization of clubs for working women, and answered inquiries from all parts of the country.

From 1922 on, the history of the National League stands out chiefly because of its contribution to the movement for adult education and its pioneer experiments in that field. It saw its task outlined, through the vision of its leaders, as a spreading among its members of an interest in the newer type of adult education which had attained great strength in Europe in workers' classes and was beginning to permeate this country. This idea was launched at one of the biennial conventions and received the backing of the membership. Concretely, the education committee of the national organization encouraged the establishment of evening classes in connection with the clubs, helped to form education committees back of these, and to select teachers in each locality who were suitable for the work. The national office outlined courses in social history, science, and literature for its groups. To show what type of adult education was aimed at, a summer school for its members and outsiders was started in the summer of 1925.

The following year the problem presented itself to the National League of following up the interest of summer school students who went back to their small factory towns where there were no classes. The solution was a traveling teacher who was to go from center to center in a given area, organize a class, teach it for a time, and endeavor if possible to secure and instruct a local teacher to continue it. Demonstrations of this kind, financed by the Carnegie Corporation, were carried on with marked success in the Berkshires and in sections of Pennsylvania.

As a result of the work of the National League special education departments, with paid trained secretaries, were established in several of the state leagues. In 1928, at a regular biennial convention, it was voted to disband the National League on the ground that it had done its work and that the state leagues were now in a position to carry on their activities without assistance. Provision was made for the League summer school to be continued, and for a committee to convene the following year to consider the question of continuing national conventions.

In the previous year the Pennsylvania League, which like the other state leagues had been a federation of clubs interested in both recreational and educational work, decided to devote itself exclusively to educational work in Philadelphia, and changed its name to the New Students' League. It is today a school for men and women workers, offering classes in history, sociology, psychology, literature, and dramatics. In 1929, through lack of funds and leadership, the Massachusetts State League, at one time the strongest league in the organization, was forced practically to disband, although a large number of individual clubs in Massachusetts continue to function, some of them owning their own clubhouses. The Massachusetts League vacation house at Rockport is still maintained under the supervision of an interested committee. Connecticut and Rhode Island have individual clubs but only a nucleus of a state organization.

The strongest group by far at the present moment is the New York League of Girls' Clubs (the old New York Association of Working Girls' Societies) with headquarters

in New York City. It comprises 17 clubs and a large general membership in New York City, and two groups in upper New York State—in Amsterdam and Syracuse. It reflects in its program all the changes in the history of the working woman from the early eighties, with their emphasis on the three P's (Perseverance, Purity, and Pleasantness), classes in embroidery and "practical talks," to the present, when it offers a comprehensive recreational and educational program meeting the most modern demands. The newest of its clubhouses contains swimming pool, gymnasium, auditorium, clubroom, classrooms, and library. Its membership of over 2,000 comprises a larger proportion of office than industrial workers, and includes teachers, librarians, and nurses. It maintains two summer camps (one of them entirely self-supporting) and a summer school. It has for the past two years, while still offering small club units, emphasized general membership in the organization for young women who are interested in its recreational and educational program but not in small unit affiliation. Although the fees for activities are kept moderate through cooperative organization, the recreational work covers its own costs; the educational classes are partly subsidized, as is the summer school, and the central administration expenses are met partly by contributions.

CONSULT: Graham, Abbie: *Grace H. Dodge; Merchant of Dreams* (The Woman's Press, New York), 1926; Annual reports of State and National Leagues, on file in the New York League of Girls Clubs, 328 East 56th Street.

DORIS MADDOW

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETIES. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

GIRLS' PROTECTIVE WORK. Within the last two decades girls' protective work has developed in the form of specialized agencies to meet the modern problems of adolescents. The traditional approach to these problems was remedial, through the use of legal procedure and placement in institutions, rather than preventive, through the use of psychological analysis and other techniques of individualized social case work treatment. The emphasis thus placed upon the problems of adolescence, as constituting a field of work apart from family welfare or child welfare, has been of great value in clarifying special needs and difficulties, the causes of which had been previously very little understood.

The movement received its greatest impetus during the World War when local protective agencies were drafted for camp service. They decentralized at the close of the war, but in 1925 representatives of some of them met and organized the Girls' Protective Council, to discuss functions and standards, the training of workers, better case work, development of leisure time activities, legislation and educational work, and to promote a better understanding of the needs. Among the charter agencies were the Girls' Service League of America in New York City, Women's Protective Association in Cleveland, Girls' Protective League in Detroit, Juvenile Protective Association in Chicago, Big Sisters of St. Louis, Girls' Advisory and Protective Bureau in Kansas City, Women's Cooperative Alliance in Minneapolis, and the Civic Protective Association in New Haven. A general membership later included other types of agencies dealing with girls' problems.

Although it was recognized that handling the "teen age problem" should include work with boys, the Council decided for the present to consider boys' work only when the girls' problems involved boy relationships. Protective agencies deal with girls between the ages of 12 and 21; the length of age span and types of problems treated are determined by local needs.

The demand for protective service has increased rapidly with the education of the community as to causal factors, the possibility of prevention, and the necessity of early adjustment of behavior problems.

Parents, teachers, and employers increasingly have sought assistance in solving the puzzling problems of youth, and other social agencies and visiting teachers constantly utilize the specialized service available. The recognition in protective agencies of the need for personal adjustments in home, school, and industry led to the early use of staff psychiatrists and psychologists for special study of the emotional factors involved in girls' problems which affect their social relationships. As early as 1913 the Girls' Service League of America recognized this basic need and placed Anne T. Bingham, psychiatrist, on its staff as mental examiner and physician, later psychiatrist, and in 1921 the Women's Protective Association of Cleveland employed Eleanor Rowland Wembridge as psychologist; many protective agencies have secured such services from hospitals, clinics, and private physicians.

The problems presented in this field of work are varied and are concerned with the more intangible values of life. They range from less serious personal problems of girls needing advice and guidance to more serious behavior problems, or mental disturbance or emotional difficulties, or those which are the result of physical or mental handicaps. The lack of parental control or guidance frequently reveals itself in resentfulness to authority, disobedience, untruthfulness, and undesirable companionships, with the result of family friction, truancy, running away from home, misappropriation of property, and moral laxity. Frequently the girl with an unfortunate home background and of superior mentality needs guidance. These problems are handled by protective agencies without court action as far as advisable. The psychopathic, neurotic, or feeble-minded girl who cannot adjust herself in home or school, is given vocational training and social guidance by protective organizations. In a majority of such cases, intensive case work treatment results in an adjustment of the disturbing factors of personality or home conditions, Other cases, unfit for community life, are segregated in hospitals or institutions.

In the complex life of present-day urban communities, differences of social standards between foreign-born parents and American-born girls constitute one of the major problems needing adjustment. Protective agencies help to harmonize the two points of view. Each nationality with its traditions and mores needs a special adaptation to American social life. Protection is also given the girl, when necessary, from unwholesome home influences or evil conditions. Complaints are handled in such matters through legal or community action against those responsible. Some agencies, like the Juvenile Protective Association in Chicago and the Women's Cooperative Alliance in Minneapolis, have aroused the community conscience to remedy demoralizing conditions due to unwholesome commercialized recreation or to the lack of proper leisure-time activities. Other organizations have developed an educational program of home visitation of parents in order to give them knowledge and a better understanding of how to meet girls' social problems; and still others have stimulated visiting teachers' work in schools and advisory service on difficult problems, or have motivated legislative programs affecting this field, such as the prevention of child marriages.

Protective agencies have also sponsored the organization of policewomen's bureaus and the maintenance of high standards of performance. Where this has been accomplished it has resulted in a modification of the broad and varied functions of the girls' protective agency, and has released them for more preventive work with individual girls. Special attention has been given to vocational adjustment and the supervision of emotionally unstable girls. Because of the extent of the problems faced, and the large demands for guidance, the well-trained paid workers of protective agencies have increased their influence through the use of the volunteer, who renders valuable service in meeting certain of the educa-

tional, recreational, and personality needs of young girls.

CONSULT: Wembridge, Eleanor R.: *Other People's Daughters*, 1926; Binford, Jessie F.: "Community Protective Measures," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1924; Addams, Jane: *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*, 1909; Healy, Bronner, Murphy, and Baylor: *Reconstructing Behavior in Youth*, 1929; and Van Waters, Miriam: *Youth in Conflict*, 1925.

SABINA MARSHALL

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

HABIT-TRAINING CLINICS. *See* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

THE HANDICAPPED. *See* SHELTERED WORKSHOPS, PLACEMENT FOR THE HANDICAPPED, REHABILITATION, THE BLIND, BLINDNESS, PREVENTION OF; THE DEAF, THE HARD OF HEARING, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, SPEECH DISORDERS.

HANDICRAFTS. *See* ARTS AND CRAFTS.

THE HARD OF HEARING or deafened—the terms are exactly interchangeable—are persons born with full sensory equipment who have become handicapped, subsequent to the development of speech, through the failure of their power to receive spoken communication by the sense of hearing. The scientific term is hypacusic.

When hearing becomes impaired, most persons find themselves unadjusted to society. Educated for normal life, many of them are unable to continue in the occupation for which they have been trained and must make a change or face dependency. All of them suffer prolonged mental strain which sometimes develops unhealthy depression, seclusiveness, and feelings of inferiority. Some are themselves able to make the necessary readjustment, but for complete social rehabilitation the majority require assistance along psychological, economic, and educational lines. Also, although most cases of hearing impairment in adults are not amenable to treatment, prompt medical attention at the onset of the trouble is imperative to make certain that every possible measure is being taken to alleviate the condition and to conserve the remainder of hearing acuity. The problem of the hard of hearing is thus different from that of persons born deaf, whose chief need is vocational training, and they require help of a different type.

The hard of hearing are variously estimated at from 5 per cent to 20 per cent of the population, with the probable number approaching the larger rather than the smaller estimate. Among them are many of the outstanding persons in any given community. As a result, organization for the benefit of this historically neglected group is a movement primarily of the hard of hearing themselves. That fact is one of great significance.

History and Present Status. Social work for the hard of hearing originated 20 years ago in New York City, when the New York League for the Hard of Hearing was founded by a young teacher of lip reading, Edward B. Nitchie, to take care of problems of personal readjustment which he could not handle. This society, a membership corporation operating for the deafened of all ages, races and religions, and every social level (since in this handicap the higher social levels require readjustments), has become a pattern organization in the field. Its work embraces employment services, a research clinic for prevention of deafness, lip reading classes for children (pending the adoption of its program of detection, medical care, and lip reading by the local department of education), lip reading practice for adults, recreation groups of all ages, hearing aid consultation service, with active cooperation freely given to public authorities and private agencies in the fields of medicine, education, physics, and social work. There are now 80 leagues or other local groups of the hard of hearing, all having the same general character and purpose as the New York League.

The Hard of Hearing

In 1919 the American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing was founded by a director of the New York League, Wendell C. Phillips, M.D., a former president of the American Medical Association. It at once attracted the cooperation as well as the endorsement of leading medical societies and prominent otologists. Others, leaders in science and education, became associated, many of whom were themselves hard of hearing. Although the American Federation is working today in the national and international field of social rehabilitation for the deafened, it has also a program, which is being gradually adopted, for the child with incipient progressive deafness. This includes early detection through periodical school surveys, medical care and health education, lip reading instruction in public schools, wise vocational guidance and vocational training (to avoid distressing economic readjustments in case of increased hearing impairment), and character-building play with hearing children.

Public activity has been comparatively slight in the field because it is only recently that the differences between work for the hard of hearing and work for the deaf have been generally recognized, and because it has been assumed, quite naturally, that the fairly adequate provisions made by most states for the education of the deaf also took care of the hard of hearing. Members of the latter group themselves are working at present to overcome the general confusion on this point. Among the publicly financed activities for the hard of hearing as distinct from the deaf are special classes for deafened children in the public schools, and school surveys for the detection of impaired hearing. At least 65 teachers of lip reading are employed in such classes, and 100 cities to date have participated in the surveys.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. The employment of social workers by private agencies in this field is as yet an ideal, rather than the rule. The American Federation and the New York League for the Hard of Hearing prefer slightly deafened graduates of a college or school of social work with experience in social case work, but engage staff members on individual ability. The New York League trains workers in its special activities and has given courses to workers from other leagues; it also welcomes observers who desire to study its work. In cooperation with the League, Columbia University now offers a course in problems of the hard of hearing, and 10 other universities and normal schools give courses designed especially to train teachers for work in this field. Opportunities for social workers whose hearing is impaired will rapidly increase.

Developments and Events, 1929. The smaller leagues increased in number during the year and began to formulate policies. Besides the annual conference held at Cleveland in June, two zone conferences were held, at San Francisco and at Baltimore. Teachers College, Columbia University, offered for the first time three courses in this field of work. The first attempt at legislation in behalf of the hard of hearing was made in Maine, during the year, by the State Commissioner of Education with the cooperation of the Speech Readers Club of Portland. The bill, which did not become a law, provided for periodical tests of school children by audiometer for the detection of impaired hearing. During the year the first survey of this field in New York City was made and completed, under the auspices of the local board of education, in cooperation with the New York League for the Hard of Hearing. The purpose was to determine the amount of hearing impairment among the pupils in a few schools in the Borough of Brooklyn. The unpublished report may be consulted at the office of the League.

CONSULT: Peck, Samuelson, and Lehman: *Ears and the Man: Studies in Social Work for the Deafened* (bibliography), 1926; Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association: *Report on the Deafened School Child,*

1928; Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior: *The Hard of Hearing Child*, 1927; American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing: *Proceedings*, 1921 to 1929; American Medical Association: *Proceedings*, 1921 to 1929; Lip Reading Department of the National Education Association: *Proceedings*, 1925 to 1929; Second Conference on Problems of the Deaf and the Hard of Hearing: *Research Recommendations* (National Research Council *Bulletin* No. 88), 1929; and American Otological Society: *Report* on Otosclerosis, 1930.

ANNETTA W. PECK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

HEALTH CENTERS have been defined as organizations which provide, promote, and coordinate medical and welfare services for the population of a definite area. They represent efforts to attain two ends: first, the creation of a district small enough to permit the applying of accepted health procedures to practically its entire population; second, the elimination within this district of the confusion and duplication of services which inevitably result when a number of different agencies—public or private, general or specialized, organized primarily to promote public health, or primarily to promote general welfare—carry on health activities in the same territory simultaneously, without joint planning or any provision for the coordination of their work.

History and Present Status. Health centers in this country had their beginning less than 20 years ago in the five-year period immediately preceding the World War. The earliest ones were organized in Pittsburgh, Cincinnati, New York City, Milwaukee, and Philadelphia by workers in the fields of child health and tuberculosis prevention respectively, who desired to apply to the whole population of specified districts the methods known to be effective in preventing infant mortality or tuberculosis. A little later the idea of coordination began to emerge. Boston, Cleveland, Buffalo, and New York City were among the places which had early developments of significance in this regard. Progress was somewhat delayed during the years of America's participation in the war, but it gained great momentum in the post-war period, partly through the so-called peace-time program of the American Red Cross, and partly through the beginning of health demonstrations financed by foundations or other especially interested groups. The Red Cross, through its local branches, did much to stimulate the development of health centers, especially as media for the dissemination of health information through exhibits, pamphlet distribution, and the like. *See* HEALTH EDUCATION, POPULAR. The purpose of all health demonstrations was to develop, in selected areas, sound principles of procedure in public health work which might be used as yardsticks by other communities. These demonstrations have already contributed much toward the development of definite conclusions as to the best techniques to be followed in organized community effort to promote public health. They differ from health centers in a number of particulars, but primarily in the fact that they are temporary in character. *See* HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS.

Since the health center movement is based upon service to the local community, it is clear that the centers will vary in accordance with the special needs of the districts which they serve. Some centers stress preventive services only; others emphasize curative activities; while a third type may combine both of these; also centers of each sort may differ widely among themselves as to the degree of cooperation which they offer other social agencies.

Health centers may be conducted under municipal auspices or may be supported by private agencies. They may administer a complete program for one agency, or may represent the cooperative efforts of several. They are sometimes county activities, as the Los Angeles Health Center and the

Alameda County Health Center of California. There are centers which, as single units, serve an entire community by housing a number of health and welfare agencies; those of Schenectady, N. Y., and Des Moines, Iowa, are typical of this centralized form. Boston is an example of a city in which development has been decentralized, with a series of municipal health centers located in the sections of the city where they are most needed. The city health department assumes the expense of physical maintenance of these centers and provides in each of them for the housing of other health and welfare agencies or districts. This development, which began in 1916, was made possible by a large gift from the George Robert White Fund. The privately maintained health centers in New York City are also examples of decentralization. The excellent progress of the East Harlem Health Center and the Judson, Bowling Green, and Bellevue-Yorkville centers have resulted in plans for city-wide health centers under municipal auspices.

Typical of the varying services rendered by health centers are the following: (a) the combination of surgical and medical care with emergency beds and laboratory facilities, preventive activities, and welfare work, including the giving of relief, which is found in the Los Angeles County Health Center; and (b) the program of pre-natal service, infant welfare and dental service, posture and nutrition work, mental hygiene, bedside nursing, tuberculosis clinics, provision of free physicians for the poor, periodic health examinations, and so forth, supplemented by social service, found in the Boston health centers.

There is no national organization for this special field of work and there are no nation-wide statistics as to the number of patients treated by health centers in any given year. The Schenectady center treats approximately 6,000 people annually, and the Des Moines center had 12,000 patients in 1928. If these figures are typical of the numbers reached by centers in the smaller cities, it is evident that the total number of patients must be very large. No radical changes in the policies of health centers have developed recently. There is evidence of an increasing appreciation of the value of health department leadership in the movement, and the cooperation of the medical profession is becoming increasingly important. There is no question but that the health center movement has resulted in greater efficiency and economy in the conduct of public health work. It has avoided duplication, has helped to point out and fill gaps in the general scheme of health care, and has assisted in bringing public health administration closer to the homes of people for whose benefit it was devised.

During 1929 health centers were organized in Wilkes-Barre, Pa., in Kent, Queen Anne, and Rockland counties, Maryland, also in Milwaukee, and in Austin, Tex. A series of health centers was organized in Fort Worth.

CONSULT: Tobey, J. A.: "Health Center Movement in the United States," in *Modern Hospital*, March, 1920; Widdemer, K. D.: "East Harlem Health Center Demonstration," in *Hospital Social Service*, September, 1923; Wilinsky, C. F.: "The Health Center," in *American Journal of Public Health*, July, 1927; Davis, M. M., Jr.: *Clinics, Hospitals and Health Centers*, 1927; Los Angeles County: "Health Center Development," in *Journal of American Medical Association*, November 16, 1929.

CHARLES F. WILINSKY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

HEALTH COUNCILS are coordinating agencies in the field of public health. A local council is composed of two representatives of each private health agency in the city—usually the paid executive and a lay member of the board—representatives of public health agencies, and members at large. The council endeavors, by correlating the programs of member agencies, to obtain the greatest possible efficiency and economy and to eliminate duplication. With group planning there is less likelihood of undue emphasis on certain problems to the neglect of

others. The discovery of gaps in a health program makes possible the initiation of new programs to meet existing needs. The council gives the existing tax-supported agencies its moral support and cooperates with the local medical association.

The health council, as distinguished from the health association, is not primarily a service organization. The Cleveland Council, however, supplies fact-finding and health education service to its member agencies, while the Boston Council maintains a general information service, and in Cincinnati some of the divisional councils render direct service. Councils usually work closely with the local welfare federation, council of social agencies or community chest. In Cleveland the health council hears and makes recommendations on the budgets of its member agencies in the welfare federation. Health councils may be supported by voluntary contributions, as in Boston; by member agency subscriptions, as in Denver; or more commonly through the community chest. Most health councils bear that name, but in Cincinnati the corresponding body is known as the Public Health Federation, and in Boston as the Health League.

Aside from the local health councils, with which this article primarily deals, are the National Health Council, the Massachusetts Central Health Council, and the Indiana Health Council. The former was established in 1920 and includes in its membership 15 national health agencies. It has recently been reorganized more nearly as a service organization, rendering common services, such as purchasing, library maintenance, and the like. The Massachusetts Council, composed of 15 health organizations, was begun in 1919. It studies the problem of public clinics and professional service and publishes a bulletin for industrial health workers. The executives of local councils are united in an informal national committee which provides for interchange of ideas and ideals.

Health councils have been formed in many cities during the past decade, and others are in the process of formation. Their development has not followed any set pattern, but has been directed by local needs; hence their activities cover a wide range and will be best understood by a brief summary of some of the accomplishments of each during the year 1929.

The Cincinnati Public Health Federation, created in 1917, assisted in securing a larger appropriation for the city health department; conducted a bond issue campaign for $2,000,000 on behalf of the county tuberculosis sanatorium, and advised the city building commission. It has organized a health education council which will promote annual health examinations. The Shoemaker Clinic, conducted by white and Negro physicians—originally sponsored and still guided to some extent by the Health Federation—was helped by the federation during 1929 to obtain a new building. A study of convalescent care has been made and a community program outlined. A 50-bed institution for convalescent children will soon be under construction. The Health Federation also attempted to extend the services of the Cincinnati General Hospital, and has made an evaluation of health work in the county according to American Public Health Association standards. Studies relating to the following subjects were made during 1929: life conservation, needs of the city health department, standards for summer health camps, the needs of the Cincinnati General Hospital, and convalescent care. A number of articles and papers were published.

The Boston Health League, organized in 1919, cooperated during 1929 in a conference on mental hygiene which resulted in a grant for a mental hygiene survey; studied infant mortality; maintained a directory of dispensaries and supplied information regarding available medical services; recommended a health education curriculum for the public schools; and maintained a calendar of public meetings on health topics.

The Cleveland Health Council, first organized in 1920, was reorganized under its present name in 1925. During 1929 it

eliminated two agencies and organized the Cleveland Child Health Association to carry on work with the preschool child; established camp health programs in 21 summer camps; conducted a housing program in a densely populated area which resulted in 17,000 inspections, 3,000 corrections, and 300 houses torn down; promoted the adoption of a million dollar hospital bond issue; conducted a city clean-up campaign; sent a letter signed by the Commissioner of Health to the mothers of all babies born during the year urging the use of toxin-antitoxin; prepared a health book list for the public library; and cooperated with the Academy of Medicine in developing a fact-finding commission. All the health programs of the Cleveland Council are founded on facts resulting from research. The Council's demographical studies, based upon census tract data, are particularly important. Studies made during 1929 related to the following among other subjects: cases of the Visiting Nurse Association followed up six months after discharge, records of 377 girls committed by juvenile court, a time study of public health nursing and clinic services, heart disease mortality, cases and deaths from common communicable diseases (analyzed by age, sex, color, and census tracts), and health and health habits of adults.

The Denver Public Health Council was organized in 1925. During 1929 it followed up the appraisal of public health activities of the city which had been previously made with the cooperation of the American Public Health Association, made plans for reducing the high infant mortality rate, gave attention to maternal mortality and prenatal care, and planned programs for the better control of communicable diseases and health programs for the preschool child and the school child.

The Health Council of the City of Minneapolis and the County of Hennepin was organized under its present name in 1930, having previously been the Hennepin County Public Health Association. During 1929 it surveyed health conditions in summer camps, in maternity homes and hospitals, and in dental clinics. The Council publishes the *Commonhealth Bulletin*, and its secretary acts as consultant on health questions to the Council of Social Agencies.

The Louisville Health Council, which was founded in 1925, promoted a Negro health week during 1929, completed and presented a health appraisal of public health activities in the city according to the methods of the American Public Health Association, began decentralization of the out-patient service of the City Hospital, and initiated a well baby clinic through the Public Health Nursing Association. Studies were published relating to nursing salary schedules, policies regarding health examinations of the staffs of community chest agencies, causes of absence of school children, and health of Girl Scouts as shown by physical examinations, also a number of articles, including one on Negro morbidity and mortality.

The New Haven Council of the Community Chest, which was organized as the Health Committee in 1927, was reorganized as a council in 1929. During 1929 it stimulated interest in a health survey it had made in 1928, its efforts resulting in the employment of a mental hygiene supervisor by the Visiting Nurse Association, in the expansion of the Nursing Service for Crippled Children, and in the forming of a Community Nursing Council and Social Hygiene Committee. It completed two studies—one on child hygiene services of the city, and the other on the needs of indigents for dental treatment.

The San Francisco Health Council, founded in 1925, obtained an appropriation of $15,000 during 1929 for caring for convalescents over 12 years of age; made a mental hygiene survey; established a child guidance clinic committee; established a diagnostic heart center, ultimately to be taken over by the Heart Committee of the County Medical Society; completed a social hygiene survey; and cooperated with the Hospital Council in raising standards of medical social service.

The General Health Council of Allegheny County, Pa., and the St. Louis Health

Council were launched during 1929. The Health Conservation Association of Kansas City, which serves some of the purposes of a health council—although it might be classified more accurately as a health association, since it is primarily a service organization—makes studies of public health needs and promotes health projects. Health committees, health divisions, and health councils of social agencies, welfare federations, or community chests exist in 18 other cities for the purpose of rendering services somewhat similar to those rendered by the foregoing organizations.

HOWARD WHIPPLE GREEN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 585.

HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS have been described as "adventures in community education." They are exhibitions of modern public health procedures, explained and applied by competent persons during a specified period of time to the people of a given area, in the hope that these procedures will so prove their worth that they can later be incorporated in the usual practice of the community. The demonstration is thus a method of teaching public health.

The first health demonstration in this country was financed by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in Framingham, Mass. In 1915 over $4,000,000 had been paid out by this company in death claims on policyholders who had died of tuberculosis. The company offered $100,000 to the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis for use in finding out what could be done to discover cases of this disease and to control its spread. The original plan was that the association should spend three years in Framingham studying tuberculosis. Hardly had the demonstration begun when it became clear that it was impossible to fight tuberculosis without carrying on a program for improving the general health of the community. The appropriation was doubled and the demonstration continued for a period of seven years. It gave for the first time a fairly complete picture of the amount of tuberculosis actually existing in a typical American community. It also gave a scheme of diagnostic standards. The tuberculosis death rate fell from 97.5 per 100,000 in 1917 to 38.2 in 1923, and throughout the succeeding years Framingham has had only about two-thirds of the death rate of the state of Massachusetts.

Next in the field was the American Red Cross, which carried on a child health demonstration in Mansfield and Richland County, Ohio, from 1922 to 1925, under the supervision of the National Child Health Council. In this demonstration the central consideration was the child's health, but, as in Framingham, it was found impossible to treat one section of the community without treating all, and a general program resulted. Although half of the residents of Richland County lived on farms where health work had been practically unknown, it was possible to establish 12 health centers for babies and preschool children in the county and in the village of Mansfield, and the number of physical examinations given school children increased from 730 in the school year 1921–1922 to 5,491 in 1924–1925. During the four years of the demonstration the health budget of the county was increased from $10,017 to $29,362, a full-time city and county health officer was appointed, and the number of public health nurses was increased from five to fourteen. On May 1, 1926, a dramatic event occurred, when 3,700 Blue Ribbon Children (children free from correctible defects) marched down the street in Mansfield.

During the years from 1923 to 1929 the Commonwealth Fund carried on four demonstrations: at Fargo, N. D.; in Clark County, Ga.; Rutherford County, Tenn., and Marion County, Ore. At the close of the demonstration period in the first three mentioned places, the local communities voted to continue the public health program recommended by the demonstration staff. In

Marion County action had not been taken at the time this report of the demonstration is written. Special features of the Commonwealth Fund demonstrations were the cooperation of the state health agencies with the local groups. In Tennessee, for instance, the State Commissioner of Health allocated state funds to the Rutherford County demonstration, advised on its general policies and procedures, and watched its development closely. Opportunities were given local physicians and nurses to carry on postgraduate study on scholarships offered by the Commonwealth Fund, and in many other ways those responsible for carrying on the work after the demonstration period were given special assistance.

In 1923 the Milbank Memorial Fund began a health demonstration in Cattaraugus County, N. Y., and in the city of Syracuse, and two years later began work in the Bellevue-Yorkville district of New York City. The year 1929 was the seventh of the rural demonstration in Cattaraugus County, and of the urban demonstration in Syracuse—one year of local organization and program-making and six years of operation. It was the fifth year of the Metropolitan Health Demonstration in the Bellevue-Yorkville district of New York City. Cattaraugus County in five years has increased its annual appropriation for health work from $9,325 to $66,000. In six years the tuberculosis death rate was reduced about one-third, and infant mortality one-fifth. Experts from 21 countries have visited the Cattaraugus County Demonstration to learn how a maximum of efficiency in sanitation and medicine has checked diphtheria, tuberculosis, and other diseases. Syracuse, also, has responded splendidly, raising its appropriation for health purposes from $175,000 in 1923 to $350,000 in 1928, and the personnel from 45 full-time and 33 part-time employes under a part-time commissioner of health to 98 full-time and 28 part-time workers under a full-time commissioner in 1928. The year 1930 will officially close these two demonstrations.

The organization of the Bellevue-Yorkville Demonstration probably required more courage and steadfastness of purpose than anything thus far attempted in the promotion of public health. To develop a unified and simplified program to augment the activities of the 56 health and social agencies working in Bellevue-Yorkville district was no task for the dilettante in welfare work. The Health Commissioner of New York City is chairman of the governing body of the demonstration and of its board of managers and its executive committee. Over 1,500 physicians have offices in this district. The complexity of the demonstration is attested by the fact that although it began in 1925, most of the first two years was expended in program making and organization problems, community relationships, and the planning and remodeling of a building for use as a health center. In 1929, $172,500 was appropriated by the Milbank Memorial Fund for this metropolitan demonstration, which enabled the health department to enlarge its services, to try new methods for the prevention of disease, and to provide additional field nurses, special nursing supervisors, and so forth. Both the Board of Education and the Catholic School Board have been given a supervising teacher to build into the curriculum a course in elementary hygiene and a knowledge of health habits. Statistical studies, surveys, and clinical investigations are helping to appraise the value of public health measures.

The demonstrations of the Milbank Memorial Fund are not duplications of those that preceded them. They deal with larger and more varied groups of population, and there exists in the three areas a greater diversity of environmental conditions. Mental as well as physical health is comprehended in the broad social program. The all-encompassing scope of the metropolitan demonstration is illustrated by the graduate course given the physicians of the district in the technique of making periodic physical examinations and keeping records of the results. The Cattaraugus County and Syracuse demonstrations will not terminate

when their scholarships in health end. These communities now are prepared for advanced work, studies have begun already for evaluating the results accomplished, and a more intensive tuberculosis investigation is under way.

CONSULT: Framingham Community Health and Tuberculosis Demonstration and the National Tuberculosis Association: *Monographs* 1–10, 1918–1924; Ruhland, George C.: "Health Demonstrations," in *American Journal of Public Health*, March, 1929; The Commonwealth Fund: *Five Years in Fargo*, 1923–1927 (Report of the Child Health Demonstration in Fargo, N. D.), 1929; Farrand, Folks, and Brown: "Health Demonstrations in the United States, 1927," in *American Journal of Public Health*, February, 1927; Widdemer, Kenneth D.: *The House that Health Built, A Report of the First Three Years' Work of the East Harlem Health Center Demonstrations* (American Red Cross), 1925.

JOSEPH P. KANE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. Health education, a phrase in widespread use since 1918, has today many diverse meanings. The definition given by the Department of Superintendence of the National Education Association (*Fourth Yearbook*, 1926), follows: "Health education is the sum of experiences in school and elsewhere which favorably influence habits, attitudes, and knowledge relating to individual, community, and racial health." Contemporary theory and practice in the fields of sociology, public health, medicine, psychology, and general science, as well as educational theory and practice, have all exerted dominating influences upon health education at different periods of its development.

History and Present Status. The basic objectives of health education in the public schools are not new. As early as 1850, due to the influence of Horace Mann, Massachusetts made the teaching of physiology compulsory in its elementary schools. Boston, in 1894, organized the first regular system of medical inspection in the United States, a step which many of the largest cities followed within the next five years. The first school gymnasium was established in 1825, and by 1890 gymnastics had been quite generally introduced in the public schools. These steps mark the early stages in the development of the three major divisions of the school health program—health service, health education, and physical education—a program which is increasingly becoming integrated. This article will deal with only one of these divisions—health education. *See also* SCHOOL HYGIENE, NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN, and TUBERCULOSIS. For health education as carried on for the benefit of the general public *see* HEALTH EDUCATION, POPULAR.

Until the era of industrialism, much informal health education came inherently from merely living in and with the family and community. Health habits and attitudes were based on customs which race experience had proved useful with little knowledge of why they worked. Handed down from parents to children they changed little in several generations. With expanding industrialism the environmental conditions surrounding child life altered rapidly and, at the same time, scientific research provided more and truer health knowledge. Social workers and public health workers were among the first to recognize the discrepancies which existed between this available health knowledge and the actual living practices of children. The thoughts of both groups turned toward childhood as the logical field for preventive work, and gradually both realized that in the education of the child lay the solution of many public health and social problems.

When the family as an economic agency was modified, its educative influence diminished and the responsibility of the schools increased. The opportunity and need for health education in schools thus became apparent and was utilized. Many of the

activities now accepted within schools as educational practices had their origin in the fields of social service or public health. Thus the first nutrition class was organized in 1902 in Boston in connection with an outpatient department of a hospital, and the first milk lunches in this country were provided as a relief measure in 1900 in sections of large cities where poverty and need were greatest. The Modern Health Crusade originated in 1904 in Illinois as a public health measure, specifically to reduce mortality from tuberculosis. It represents the first recognition of the necessity for enlisting child interest as an important factor in modifying child health behaviors. It was introduced on a national scale in 1915 by the National Tuberculosis Association. Open-air classes and open window classes were also organized to provide a more favorable school environment for children predisposed to tuberculosis.

These measures, first tried in school situations for the purpose of alleviating conditions for physically and socially handicapped children, were soon recognized as basic hygienic measures favorable to child growth and development and therefore beneficial to all children. The underlying principles found their way into general classroom practice.

Health instruction was stressed through laws enacted by many states making the teaching of physiology and hygiene compulsory. Some states even prescribed the content of the courses and the minimum time to be expended on them. By 1923 the subjects relating to health in which instruction was required in the elementary schools by state legislative enactments or by rulings of state boards of education were: hygiene, 44 states; physiology, 42 states; scientific temperance, 33 states; effects of or prevention of tuberculosis, 2 states; communicable disease, 2 states; safety first, 5 states; and physical education, 26 states. Gradually, however, schools began to shift their emphasis from mastery of abstract knowledge to practical application of principles of healthful living. They attempted to equip children with healthful habits, attitudes, and sound information. After 1918 this shift in emphasis became very noticeable, and educational attention to the importance of health education increased rapidly, probably through the influence of the promotional campaigns of voluntary agencies. All the child health demonstrations — community programs financed by the American Red Cross, American Child Health Association, Commonwealth Fund, or the Milbank Memorial Fund—included an educational program for school children. *See* HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS.

Physical education also has made great contributions to health education. The formalized program of gymnastic drills, aimed at the correction of postural defects and keeping children fit for their intellectual work, has been gradually supplanted by a program whose activities are determined by their inherent values for the normal growth and development of children. Play as an essential factor in education is almost universally recognized. California initiated the first state-wide program of natural physical education in 1918. Physical education was reported in 644 of 901 cities replying to a questionnaire of the United States Office of Education in 1923. In 1929, 36 states had laws concerning physical education, and 19 states had state directors of physical education or health and physical education.

Among the important events in the development of health education in the public schools are: the publication in 1909, by the National Society for the Study of Education, of a *Year Book*, Part I of which was devoted to Health and Education; the organization in 1911 of the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education by the National Education Association and the American Medical Association; the publication in 1918, by the United States Office of Education, of the first of its Health Education Series; the official recognition of health as a main objective of education in the report, issued in 1918, of the Commission on the Reorganization of Secondary Education;

and the publication, in 1924, of the report of the above-mentioned Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education, this being the first statement of principles and procedures to be prepared in this field by an officially organized educational group. Of great significance also have been the series of conferences on health education arranged by the American Child Health Association. The first national conference, held in 1922 at Lake Mohonk, N. Y., was followed the next year by an international conference at San Francisco, which resulted in the creation of a health section in the World Federation of Education Associations.

As a result of these diverse origins and influences, health education may today be found in every stage of development, ranging from the formal textbook instruction prescribed by law for 20 minutes a week, to the school curriculum which recognizes health education as a 24-hour-a-day problem, and enlists the cooperation of the home and all community agencies.

In the more progressive schools the trends in health education are toward making the total school life of the child a healthful experience. Health (physical, mental, emotional, social) is an objective of education—a policy rather than a departmentalized subject. The purpose is to provide in every school situation that type of educational experience which will favorably modify health behavior, which will result in desirable attitudes, which will equip the individual with sound knowledge and judgment in relation to health matters and make him self-directive in healthful living. These aims are sought through an integrated curriculum, based on child needs, which enlists child interest, relates instruction to child experience, and correlates in the interest of a broader education all the contributions which various subjects and activities have made to individual, community, and racial health. Attention to curriculum building in health education is evidenced by the many new courses of study, both state and local, which have been published in the last six years, and the number which are now in the process of construction.

There exists a wide range of administrative policies regarding supervisory responsibilities, a situation indicative of a stage of experimentation and adjustment. Supervisors of health education are increasingly being employed in the larger cities. There is almost universal recognition of the responsibility of the classroom teacher in the health program. The training of teachers for this field is receiving much attention both in teacher-training institutions and in extension courses for teachers-in-service. Many universities are now providing graduate courses for those specializing in health education. The first master's degree in health education was conferred in 1922 by Teachers College, Columbia University.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the Fifth Conference on Health Education was held at Sayville, Long Island, under the auspices of the American Child Health Association. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection appointed a subcommittee on health education in the public schools, and one session was devoted to the subject by the Health Section of the World Federation of Education Associations meeting in Geneva, Switzerland. During the year also a revision of its earlier report on health education was undertaken by the Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education.

CONSULT: Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education of the National Education Association and the American Medical Association: *Health Education—A Program for Public Schools and Teacher Training Institutions* (National Education Association), revised, 1930; Chicago Health Education Conference: *Report* (American Child Health Association), June, 1925; Health Education Conference of 1929: *School Health Progress* (American Child Health Association), 1930; Rogers, James F.: *Progress and Prospect in School Health Work* (Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, School Health Series No. 10), 1925; Wood and Lerrigo: *Health Behavior*, 1927; Brown, Maud A.: *Teaching*

Health in Fargo (Commonwealth Fund), 1929; American Child Health Association: *Health Trends in Secondary Education*, 1927.

ANNE L. WHITNEY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HEALTH EDUCATION, POPULAR. The dominant characteristic of the modern public health movement is its emphasis on popular health education. This may be broadly defined as the act of making health information public by techniques which arouse, stimulate, and produce a motivation in regard to healthy living. Modern public health practice has shown how to prevent a large portion of sickness and premature deaths. The problem considered in this article is how to make this knowledge accessible to the average man in terms which he can understand and make a part of his own living. (For methods of health education directed to the school child *see* HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS.) Workers in the field of public health have accepted the challenge. Publicity methods have gradually been developed to reach the people who need to benefit from scientific discoveries and health activities. The output has increased yearly and greater accuracy and effectiveness have been developed. Much is still written which deserves careful scrutiny, but much more is authentic and well prepared. The media available are numerous. Chief among them are newspapers, bulletins, folders, pamphlets, magazines, radio talks, motion pictures, exhibits, posters, and public addresses.

Most public health agencies, official and voluntary, general and specialized, carry on educational publicity adapted either for adults or for children, or for both. At least 36 state and 52 city departments, and hundreds of voluntary agencies, in addition to their other forms of publicity, issue bulletins regularly, usually monthly, on health topics. Several states and cities have also full-time directors of public health instruction outside the schools. Several divisions of the federal government, including the United States Public Health Service and the United States Children's Bureau, carry on extensive educational work, and the popular booklets which they publish have been widely circulated by state and local health agencies as well as directly from Washington. It is expected that the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection will have far-reaching influence in this field. *Hygeia*, published by the American Medical Association, and *Everybody's Health*, published by the Minnesota Public Health Association, are excellent examples of popular health magazines. In the belief that Chautauqua circuits provide one of the best media for reaching the highest concentration of intelligence in the small town, the American Public Health Association, the National Tuberculosis Association, 23 state health departments, five Chautauqua circuits, and the Milbank Memorial Fund have cooperated in the organization of a Chautauqua health program. The venture, organized in the summer of 1928, has reached 375 communities in 23 states. The estimated audiences at the public health lectures number 820,000. Many tangible results have been obtained

The celebration of May Day has become a means of focusing the interest of a nation upon its children. The publicity given to this program, developed by the American Child Health Association, has been commented on as evidence of the cooperation which magazines and newspapers give to an idea which holds within it a genuine appeal to popular sentiment. The "Child's Bill of Rights," which is the official document of May Day, has been used in school and community programs, made the subject of editorials, the text of sermons, and embodied into the aims of health boards. The annual Negro Health Week is also observed in many communities and quite generally in the South.

Among the voluntary agencies there are some eight health councils in cities and

several health committees of community chests or councils of social agencies which are active in this field. Through the health councils, carefully planned programs are developed, and groups are brought together in an effort to improve their general program of education. The national programs of the Young Men's Christian Associations and the Young Women's Christian Associations, of the Boy Scouts, Girl Scouts, and the Camp Fire Girls, among others include health activities and emphasize the importance of periodic physical examinations and follow-up.

Public health agencies believe that publicity methods bring results. The American Social Hygiene Association stated last year that about three-eighths of the Association's budget for the previous two years was for educational measures. A local maternity association spends about 12 per cent of its budget on educational publicity, aside from money-raising publicity. Several insurance companies have recognized the tragedy of unnecessary sickness and premature death and have adopted a policy which may be expressed in the slogan: "Insurance, not merely as a business proposition, but as a social program." The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company, Pilot Life Insurance Company, and the Travelers Insurance Company are among the leaders in this field. Hundreds of booklets dealing with preventable disease, child hygiene, personal hygiene, and community hygiene have been prepared for these companies, and millions of copies of their health pamphlets have been carried by their agents into the homes of policyholders. Special health exhibits and motion pictures have played important parts in these programs.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the United States Chamber of Commerce, in its effort to enlist the cooperation of its membership in the conservation of life and health, inaugurated an inter-chamber health conservation contest in which over 100 cities enrolled. This is similar in form to contests heretofore carried on successfully by the chamber in fire prevention. A campaign to reach eight million women with its message was conducted by the American Society for the Control of Cancer. It is noteworthy, since more women than men die of cancer, that leading national organizations of women cooperated. During April, for the second year, an early diagnosis campaign particularly directed against childhood tuberculosis was conducted by the National Tuberculosis Association and several hundred affiliated or cooperating agencies. Special efforts were directed toward influencing girls between 15 and 25 years of age—among whom the disease has not declined as rapidly as among other age and sex groups—to have complete physical examinations made and to observe health habits. Active interest was shown during the year by the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, in cooperation with the associated out-patient clinics, in teaching health to clinic patients through the distribution of literature, use of lantern slides, and the arrangement of popular talks. A special committee representing the five county medical societies in New York City was set up during the year to carry on a health examination campaign in the city. A medical information bureau was organized jointly by the New York Academy of Medicine and the Medical Society of New York County to facilitate the dissemination of reliable information of a medical character. The bureau checks the statements and statistics in copy submitted, in advance of publication, by editors and health agencies. In this way accuracy is insured and the claims of quacks are not given dangerous publicity. Finally, mention should be made of the "Texas Health Special of 1929," a device for carrying the health message to all parts of the state. An entire train was used, made up of two exhibit cars, two lecture cars, baggage car, diner and Pullman. Besides the train crew, there was usually a personnel of 12 or 15 trained physicians, sanitary engineers, and technicians who gave lectures and demonstrated health exhibits.

The train traveled more than 2,500 miles, visited 115 towns and cities, and reached 70,000 people.

CONSULT: Routzahn, Mary Swain and Evart G.: *Publicity for Social Work*, 1928; Galdston, Iago: *Health Speakers Handbook*, 1925; The American Public Health Association: *Appraisal Form for City Health Work*, 1929 edition (Includes suggestions for the quantitative evaluation of activities in this field); "Steps in Planning a Health Education and Publicity Program: a Symposium," in the *American Journal of Public Health*, May and June, 1929; Routzahn, Mary Swain and Evart G.: *Supplement to Publicity Methods Reading List*, 1929; also issues of the *American Journal of Public Health*, Education and Publicity Section; and the *News Bulletin* of the Social Work Publicity Council.

IRA V. HISCOCK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HEALTH FEDERATIONS. *See* HEALTH COUNCILS.

HEART DISEASE stands at the peak of all causes of death in the United States registration area, with a rate in 1928 of 207.7 per 100,000 of the population. If this continues, one out of every five persons living today will eventually die from heart disease, and for every death from heart disease in a given year, it is conservatively estimated that there are 10 persons who are living impaired and deficient lives because of a breakdown of the heart function.

In the past, heart disease has been considered as an ailment of old age because the majority of deaths which it causes occur after 50; yet this disease is as important in early life as many diseases commonly associated with childhood and youth. Only about 12 per cent of rheumatic heart disease develops in persons over 40 years of age; approximately 75 per cent originates in children under 10, and among children from 10 to 14 it is the main cause of death. From studies made in Philadelphia, Boston, Chicago, and New York the index as to the incidence of organic heart disease in children is shown to be approximately 7 per 1,000. Records of social agencies show that heart disease is a primary factor in dependency, but encouragement to organized activities for persons with this handicap is offered by the demonstration that through rehabilitation processes and vocational training and guidance many can be helped to earn their living in employment which will not aggravate their disease.

The principal causes of heart disease are: acute or chronic infectious diseases, particularly rheumatic fever and syphilis; arteriosclerosis; and arterial hypertension, commonly known as high blood pressure. The contributory factors are intoxications, infections, and poisons of various sorts, bad personal hygiene, and improper methods of living.

Acute rheumatism, which is the chief cause of heart disease in early life, is caused presumably by a germ which may gain entrance to the body through diseased tonsils, teeth or adenoids. It follows, therefore, that adequate care of the teeth and medical and surgical attention to diseased tonsils or adenoids will ward off one source of infection. Rheumatism itself should always be followed by a long period of convalescence. The cause of syphilis is known; its prevention is relatively easy and its cure possible. Arteriosclerosis is a degenerative disease of the arteries, a characteristic disease of advancing years. Although the cause is not definitely known, its progress may be retarded by living hygienically. Possibly the most valuable preventive measure is the habit of having a regular medical examination, since heart disease may often be entirely cured or at least arrested if taken at an early stage.

Children with damaged hearts should be classified according to the degree that their physical capacity is limited. They may remain in ordinary school classes, but a special effort should be made to build up the natural resistance to infection in order to prevent

further injury. School authorities should encourage cardiac children of adequate intelligence to continue their education beyond the elementary grades, since much of the work of the uneducated and unskilled is heavy physical labor and therefore unsuited to people with heart disease.

History and Present Status. In 1922 at St. Louis, a national organization, now called the American Heart Association, was formed for the purpose of research, coordination of effort, and popular education. It aims to assist in the development of new cardiac centers and to arouse the public to its responsibility in combating heart disease. It has compiled a nomenclature for cardiac diagnosis; also criteria for classification and diagnosis. Besides other educational material, it supplies motion picture films on heart disease, health exhibits, and field service for heart committees and cardiac clinics throughout the country. In order that physicians with training and experience in heart work may be available for cardiac clinics, additional graduate courses, such as are now successfully being carried on in Boston, New York, California, and Missouri, are urged. Convalescent care for adults and children has received much attention, since this form of care has been found to rank next in effectiveness to out-patient cardiac clinics. Vocational training is promoted under both public and private auspices, so that boys and girls handicapped by heart disease may be taught to earn their livelihood. Provision is made for chronic hospital care where necessary. Statistical, medical, and social research is stimulated, and scientific data on cardiac diseases are published in the *American Heart Journal.* The Association is composed of 809 individual members and 34 constituent local or state organizations, including four state-wide heart associations (in Iowa, Pennsylvania, Minnesota, and Florida); one regional association (the New England Heart Association); and five local heart associations (in Chicago, Harrisburg, Philadelphia, St. Louis, and Los Angeles). There are 24 heart committees working in conjunction with state and county medical societies, departments of health, tuberculosis associations, and such state-wide agencies as the State Charities Aid Association of New York. It is estimated that approximately 5,000,000 persons are reached through the educational publicity of the association and organizations affiliated with it.

There are approximately 210 cardiac clinics in the United States and Canada, with about 10,000 patients in attendance, also a few sheltered workshops, under private auspices, exclusively for cardiac cases. It has been found from surveys in some of the large cities that it is usually unnecessary to have special cardiac classes in public schools, but the systematic registration of cardiac pupils in the public schools is essential and they should be classified according to the degrees of functional capacity worked out by the American Heart Association.

Developments and Events, 1929. The most significant events of the year were the following: the organization of two new heart committees, connected with tuberculosis and public health associations, and one local heart association; the establishment of 19 new cardiac clinics in 16 different cities; the addition of a field worker to the staff of the national association; the appointment of committees of that association to carry on research on the heart and the aorta; and to study the standardization of digitalis; the conducting of special studies in 18 cities, chiefly under local auspices; the establishment in Chicago of the Emil and Fannie Wedeles Fund for the study of diseases of the heart and circulation, and the Morris Fishbein, Jr., Fund for research on rheumatic heart disease.

CONSULT: Hart, T. Stuart: *Taking Care of Your Heart,* 1924; the following pamphlets published in 1928 by the American Heart Association: *Advice to Those Who Have Arteriosclerosis or High Blood Pressure, Advice on Marriage and Pregnancy to Those with Heart Disease, Advice to Those Who Have Rheumatic Heart Disease, Ad-*

vice to Those Who Have Syphilitic Heart Disease, Heart Disease and Its Prevention, What is Heart Disease? Heart Disease and School Life, and *Problems in the Prevention and Relief of Heart Disease;* and issues of the *Bulletin* of the American Heart Association, and of the *American Heart Journal.*

I. C. RIGGIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

HEBREW CHARITIES. *See* JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.

HIKING is a soldier's slang word brought back, it is reported, from the Philippines 30 years ago. It is now an organized form of recreation and has developed a literature of maps, guidebooks, and schedules quite like that of other forms of American life. The activity is evidently a throwback to pioneer times, when most travel was on foot for exploration, hunting, warfare, or other purposes. Most walking at present is for pleasure or recreation.

History and Present Status. Organized hiking as represented in the scores of clubs throughout the country is a development of the past 30 years—the period which has witnessed the invention and perfection of the automobile, and the transformation of highways to meet the demand for good roads. Before the days of the automobile most country roads were pleasant for hikers; walkers now find them unsafe. The result has been the development of trail systems by private and public agencies, and the discovery, first by necessity and later for the satisfaction of latent pioneering instincts, of walkers' routes through field and forest, and in mountain and wilderness regions.

Park and forest agencies, both natural and state, have done much to provide trails for walkers, but an equal amount has been done by clubs and associations, at their own expense and in many cases with a large amount of volunteer labor. Notable examples of trail systems constructed by such private agencies, with the sanction of the public agencies concerned, are those of the Appalachian Mountain and Green Mountain Clubs in New England; the Adirondack Mountain Club in New York; and an association of walking clubs of the New York City-Northern New Jersey district in the Bear Mountain-Harriman State Park. The most ambitious project of this kind, launched 10 years ago and now well under way, is the Appalachian Trail, a footpath for hikers from Maine to Georgia. This trail is being developed largely by clubs and individuals, and is supported with the cooperation of national and state park agencies in regions under public control. Walking and climbing clubs tend to amplify their schedules yearly, to offer outdoor programs in larger numbers and of greater variety, and to make their activities cover the entire twelve months. Many clubs have compiled excellent guidebooks of regions in which they are particularly interested.

While much of the activity here noted is of a self-supporting character, its permanent results, in the form of trails, shelters, guides, and maps, are available and highly serviceable to organizations of a philanthropic character which are convenient to regions made accessible for walkers. Some of these organizations maintain camps in public preserves or on private sites, and hiking trips are arranged from these as centers.

CONSULT: *The Mountain Magazine,* published by the Associated Outdoor Clubs of America. Guides and maps published by the National Park Service and Forest Service; maps of the United States Geological Survey, and of many state geological commissions, and regional guide books published by hiking clubs.

RAYMOND H. TORREY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HI-Y CLUBS. *See* YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS under YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

HOME AND SCHOOL VISITORS. *See* Visiting Teachers.

HOME ECONOMICS. The purpose of home economics is to improve the quality of living in the home, the institutional household and the community by the application of systematized knowledge. Its field includes subjects of major concern to family life: food and nutrition, textiles and clothing, the house, family finances, and the family and its relationships. Persons trained in home economics are employed in schools and universities as teachers of the subjects mentioned; by hospitals and other institutions as dietitians and teachers of dietetics; by family welfare agencies as nutrition workers and home economists; by federal and state governments, in cooperation, as home demonstration agents or club leaders under the Cooperative Extension Work of the United States Department of Agriculture, or as teachers of vocational home economics under the Federal Board for Vocational Education. *See* Visiting Housekeepers and Home Economists; Nutrition Work for Children; Family Budgets; and Rural Social Work. *See also,* in Part II, Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

Departments of Home Economics in some colleges and teacher-training institutions maintain nursery schools or laboratories for research in child development. The American Home Economics Association has been the recipient of a grant which has made possible a center for nursery school education, research, and student and parent training. That Association is also cooperating with other agencies in the work of the National Council of Parent Education. *See* Nursery Schools; Parent Education; and Child Development Research.

HOME-FINDING. *See* Dependent and Neglected Children.

HOME RECREATION has taken its place in recent years as part of the program promoted by municipal departments of recreation and by several private recreational agencies. The home play program aims: (a) to encourage provision of adequate space and facilities for the play of children at home, and to discourage the use for that purpose of public streets and other dangerous places; (b) to center the attention of parents on the importance of playing with their children; and (c) to provide attractive programs of social activities for adults as well as children in the home and in connection with neighborhood life.

Possibly the greatest contribution to home recreation has come from the National Recreation Association and from municipal recreation departments, and the greatest stimulus from such organizations as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, and the "4-H clubs" of the United States Department of Agriculture. Municipal and private recreation systems have stimulated the growth of home play in numerous ways: through their information service with suggestions for home play; through regularly broadcasting directions for games, handicrafts, and other activities; through classes on home recreation for parents and children; and through the loaning of party kits for family play in the home.

In addition many departments of recreation print pamphlets and bulletins, with suggestions for building home play equipment, and plans for the layout of back yards and playrooms. They also organize contests and hold exhibits in relation to home playground apparatus and layouts, encourage home gardens, and promote home play weeks for the purpose of fostering family play.

Public recreation directors have featured home gardens through community flower shows, to which only home garden products are admitted, and through bulb, seed, and plant exchanges. They also give instructions on such subjects as the care and keeping of pets.

The year 1929 showed a marked increase

in facilities for recreation in apartment houses, either in outside grounds, indoor playrooms and auditoriums, or roof playgrounds. There were more interblock playgrounds set aside in real estate developments, and more recreation leaders were employed by the owners of large apartment buildings.

Among the many agencies contributing to the enrichment of home recreation—although their main purpose is not primarily recreational—are those described in this volume under SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS and RURAL ORGANIZATION OF RECREATION.

CONSULT: Forbush, W. B., and Allen, H. R.: *The Book of Games for Home, School, and Playground*, 1927; Garrison, Charlotte G.: *Permanent Play Material for Young Children*, 1926; National Recreation Association: *Home Play*, 1928; and Bancroft, Jessie: *Games for the Playground, Home, School, and Gymnasium*, 1914.

J. W. FAUST

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HOMELESS PERSONS. In no field of social work are lone hands played more generally or more consistently than in the care and treatment of the homeless. The difficulty of developing a constructive program is so great that the subject has never received the attention it deserves. The problem is primarily that of the homeless man. The number of unattached women is small, and they ordinarily have greater possibilities of self-maintenance, either legitimate and conventional or illegitimate and antisocial. The homeless family has received increased attention with the development of the automobile migrant. Although that problem at present is extremely difficult, because children are involved, it is a less elusive problem than that of the individual man. It is also less extensive.

The single man who wanders from place to place and supports himself by seasonal or casual labor is, to a large degree, an unfortunate social product of our modern industrial system, but he ordinarily presents no problems to the social agencies of the country. The usual client of those agencies is the man who is never content to remain long in any community or on any job, or who is unable to hold the jobs offered him. The greatest obstacle to constructive efforts in this field is the ease with which an individual may pass from one community to another, baffling the case worker or the city missionary who has no power to detain him short of sheer personal appeal.

History and Present Status. The agencies in most communities which care for the homeless are travelers' aid societies, family welfare societies, the Salvation Army, Volunteers of America, city rescue missions, and lodging houses under either public or private auspices. The two agencies first named emphasize social case work in their services, while the Salvation Army, Volunteers, and missions place greater stress on the religious appeal as a means of individual reconstruction. Lodging houses generally make efforts to obtain employment for their clients, in addition to providing food and lodging. Many have case workers employed, or have arrangements with other agencies through which case work or religious help may be given.

Traditionally the three groups of agencies mentioned are far apart in their points of view. Cooperative programs, either national or local, have therefore been difficult to develop. Through councils of social agencies and otherwise many communities have organized committees for dealing with the situation cooperatively, but little was done prior to 1921 to unite the efforts of one community with those of another. In that year the Family Welfare Association of America appointed a Committee on the Homeless. It approached its task first from the national standpoint, and organized a conference in which the interested national agencies were brought together. At that time it was

assumed by many that local programs were futile, because the work could be handled in a completely satisfactory manner only if organized on a national scale. Gradually, however, it became recognized that the problem is both a national and a local one, and that local consciousness and local planning must precede that which is organized on state, regional, or national lines. Acting on this basis, the committee referred to has in recent years placed its chief emphasis upon the importance of local cooperation in the place where each homeless problem arises. Encouragement and stimulation have been given to local cooperative programs, information being assembled concerning them and placed at the service of all interested communities.

Committees, councils, or cooperative groups, as distinguished from individual agencies engaged in work for the homeless, are now organized in the following cities: New York, Philadelphia, Cleveland, St. Louis, Baltimore, Los Angeles, San Francisco, Washington, Cincinnati, Seattle, Louisville, Richmond, Memphis, Albany, Wilmington, Reading, and Charleston. By means of questionnaires, informal discussions, and subcommittee assignments, these local committees have endeavored to attain a better understanding of their problems, and to merge and harmonize the varying and often conflicting points of view presented by their constituent agencies.

The extent to which the homeless in a large city require care and service is indicated in the latest report of the Transient Service Bureau of Cincinnati. Nearly 6,800 men were registered, for 200 of whom positions were obtained; 17 were returned to their homes, and 128 given medical treatment through the Bureau's own clinic.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the Welfare Council of New York City developed a plan for demonstrating the possibility and value of social case work with homeless men. A five-year demonstration was decided upon and the needed funds obtained. A case worker is to be placed in each of the agencies where care is given to the homeless. A significant development in Cincinnati was that connected with the Transient Service Bureau, already mentioned. That Bureau, which is the outgrowth of cooperative planning under private auspices, was transferred during the year to the Department of Public Welfare. During the year, also, there was a noticeable continuation of the slow and halting movement of recent years toward greater use of case work methods, and toward the policy of placing local leadership in this matter in the hands of the Travelers Aid Society or some other well-equipped case work agency.

CONSULT: Lilliefors, Manfred, Jr.: "Social Case Work and the Homeless Man," in *The Family*, January, 1929; and Bruno, Frank J.: "Principles of Case Work Involved in the Treatment of Non-Resident and Transient Families," in *The Family*, July, 1929.

MALCOLM S. NICHOLS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HOMEWORK IN INDUSTRY, known also as "tenement house work" or the "sweating system," usually refers to work done in a tenement or dwelling house—by members of the family whose home it is or by others coming there to work—on goods furnished by the employer, who merely contracts to have the specified processes completed. There are no reliable figures as to the total number of homes into which work is sent or numbers of persons doing it. In Pennsylvania, for 1927, approximately 12,000 homeworkers were reported; in New York, for 1928, 12,887. The federal Children's Bureau found in 1928 that in Newark, N. J., among 459 families interviewed there were 849 children under 16 who had done homework, and in six other New Jersey communities, among 169 families, there were 282 children under 16 who had been so employed. Almost one-fourth of these children

were under 10 years of age and almost four-fifths were under 14.

Homework industries do not appear to vary greatly from one part of the country to another. In every state for which reports are available the garment industry furnishes an important part of the work. In New York State tenement house work on infants' or children's clothing and on dolls is prohibited entirely. Homework on these articles is reported, however, from other states. Dress accessories, such as neckwear, hosiery, gloves, handkerchiefs, are widely reported; also work on tags, carding buttons, safety pins, and so forth; and work on paper boxes and lampshades; in short, any kind of hand work from the simplest and most monotonous to that which benefits by the Old World skills of expert needlewomen. Outside of New York, where legal prohibition holds, homework on foodstuffs is still carried on. Skinning onions or fish, shelling nuts, and stripping tobacco are reported.

The dangers of homework are: (a) the transmission of communicable diseases to consumers by means of articles so made; (b) undercutting of the standards of living of organized factory workers by homeworkers whose isolated position makes them much less capable of refusing inadequate wages; (c) the difficulty of regulating the hours of labor of women, and of prohibiting or regulating the employment of children, even when labor laws are made applicable to homework.

History and Present Status. The first movement for legal control in this field related to the manufacture of cigars in tenement houses in New York City. This may have been due in part to the fact that cigarmaking, carried on by immigrants in the most unsanitary tenements, was recognized as particularly injurious both to workers and to consumers of the product. It was mainly, however, because these homeworkers were competing with skilled factory workers in one of the most strongly organized groups in the country, the International Cigar Makers' Union. Public interest was accordingly aroused, and the first state law relating to tenement house manufacture was passed in 1883. That law, passed three years before the first factory act of the state, is believed to be the first in any country concerning homework. It prohibited work on cigars in New York City. Almost immediately it was declared unconstitutional on technical grounds and a new law, correcting the earlier errors, was passed in 1884. This second law came before the New York Court of Appeals in the well known Jacobs case (98 N. Y. 98) in which the court again denied the constitutionality of the act but this time on the ground that while it was ostensibly a health measure, it did not actually relate to public health and was therefore an unwarranted interference with property rights. In 1891 Massachusetts, nevertheless, passed "an act to prevent the manufacture and sale of clothing made in unhealthy places," and a period of extensive interest in problems of homework and means of dealing with them followed.

Laws relating to the subject exist at present in 15 states. Some of these prohibit anyone except members of the family from doing homework in tenements or dwelling houses. Generally, in the 10 states[1] having such provisions, prohibition applies only to specified articles. In New York, however, since 1913, all homework is prohibited except by members of the family, but this law applies only to houses in which three or more families are living separately, while the law in other states applies to one-family and two-family houses as well. Laws of the second type, existing in 13 states,[2] cover the inspection and licensing of houses where homework is legally permitted, and the licensing of persons giving out homework. A third type of legislation, existing only in New York State, completely prohibits the manufacture in tene-

[1] Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New York, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Tennessee.

[2] California, Connecticut, Illinois, Indiana, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Tennessee, Wisconsin.

ments of any article of infants' or children's clothing, dolls or dolls' clothing, or food.

Within the past 10 years three states—California and Oregon under their general powers to regulate the wages of women and children, and Wisconsin by specific amendment to its homework law—have tried to regulate the rate of wages paid for homework. In California the Industrial Commission which administers the law has been hampered by lack of funds; in Wisconsin definite improvement has resulted; and in Oregon it is felt that by this means homework has been prevented from gaining a foothold. Despite such progress, the extremely low earning power of homeworkers continues to be the most serious problem connected with this subject. In 1929 the Bureau of Women in Industry of the New York State Department of Labor published a study, *Some Social and Economic Aspects of Homework*, in which it reports that 83 per cent of the homeworkers studied were working to supplement an inadequate family income, 13 per cent worked for extra spending money, and 4 per cent depended on homework earnings as their sole income. The median earnings in the usual week were $6.19, and in the maximum week $9.46. Half of the women worked irregular hours, three-fourths at least four hours a day, and 11 per cent nine hours or more. Sixty-nine per cent of the women worked at night.

In spite of the difficulties and drawbacks connected with this type of industry, two facts must be kept in mind in considering any program for dealing with it. First, there seem to be groups of people for whom the conditions of factory production are eminently unsuited yet who benefit, either psychologically, economically, or both, by the opportunity to work. Such are the physically handicapped—the blind, crippled, cardiacs—and those handicapped by old age. In a somewhat similar position are women with small children or with other homebound dependents. All of these constitute a group whose position might be greatly improved if the country were to adopt the stand of Wisconsin. The industrial commission there "is not opposed to homework, but insists that the rate paid should be adequate." Second, it is well to remember that legal regulation or prohibition of the products which may be made in homes has always been on the basis of protection of public health. Consequently, statutes which have gone beyond that point could not be expected to stand.

Developments and Events, 1929. There were no important changes in any state law regulating homework during the year. Pennsylvania (Ch. 233) repealed an old act of 1895 which had presumably been already superseded by the homework regulations of its Code of 1923. In New Jersey (Ch. 158) the establishment of a Bureau for Women and Children, with special field investigators, made possible the inspection of homes to which work is taken.

CONSULT: Association of Governmental Labor Officials: *Report of the Committee on Industrial Homework* (Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor, Bulletin No. 455), 1927; Kelley, Florence: *Some Ethical Gains Through Legislation*, Chapters VI and VII and Appendix IV, 1905; New York State Factory Investigating Commission: *Reports* of 1912, 1913, and 1915; Massachusetts Bureau of Labor Statistics and Amy Hewes: *Industrial Homework in Massachusetts in 1915;* Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Child Labor in New Jersey, Part 2, Children Engaged in Industrial Home Work*, No. 185, 1928; Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry: *Industrial Homework in Pennsylvania*, 1921, and *Industrial Homework and Child Labor*, 1926; New York State Department of Labor: *Some Social and Economic Aspects of Home Work* (Special Bulletin No. 158), 1929, and *Homework in the Men's Clothing Industry in New York and Rochester*, 1926; Colson, Myra H.: "Negro Homeworkers in Chicago," in *Social Service Review*, September, 1928; and New York State Department of Labor: *Report on Manufacturing in Tenements*, 1924.

FRIEDA S. MILLER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HOSPITAL CARE. The hospital stands today as the one agency in the community in which the physician can find all of the many aids which science has supplied for his use in rendering prompt, adequate, and competent service to the sick and injured. Its organization is a complex and intricate one, calling for careful and efficient administrators who can organize its functions so that any or all of them may at short notice be brought into action for the benefit of the patient.

Experience has shown that certain types of patients can best be cared for in separate institutions, but the size of a community may make it necessary that they be grouped in one hospital. Facilities are required for acutely ill patients; for those afflicted with acute communicable diseases; for those afflicted with chronic illnesses; for the convalescent. Special institutions are necessary for certain diseases, such as tuberculosis and mental and nervous disorders. When the size of the community warrants it, separate hospitals for children, for maternity patients, for orthopedic cases, for eye, ear, nose and throat patients, and for other special groups offer many advantages.

While each community will have peculiar needs and will therefore require individual study, in the usual industrial American community a ratio of five hospital beds for each 1,000 of population will provide adequate facilities for the general group of acutely ill patients. For acute communicable diseases a ratio of five beds for each 10,000 of population is recommended. For the treatment of tuberculosis the basis for calculation generally used has been one bed for each death from that disease. This ratio has not, however, provided adequate facilities in all instances. In rural districts such factors as distance to larger communities, transportation facilities, customs of local medical practice, morbidity statistics, and the economic status of the population must be studied.

In recent years special attention has been called to the cost of hospital care, and criticism has often been directed at these institutions. But though hospital costs have increased, the efficiency of service has been materially improved. The average length of a patient's stay in the hospital has been reduced from 20 to 11 or 12 days during the last 20 years, and mortality records have also shown great improvement. The entire question of the cost of medical care, of which hospital care is an important part, is now being studied by a national committee organized for that purpose. *See* Cost of Medical Care.

Hospitals classify patients as "free"—those who are served gratuitously; "part-pay"—those who are charged less than the average per patient day cost, and "pay"—those who are charged the full cost or more than cost of service. The economic status of patients in the first class is usually investigated in order to determine their eligibility for free service. Patients are often placed in the second group on the advice of attending physicians. An increasing number of hospitals, however, are instituting financial investigations in order to fix eligibility for all service given at less than cost. Inasmuch as these two groups of patients frequently make up a large percentage of the hospital clientele, they present serious problems and account for the financial deficits experienced by many institutions.

The hospital system of the United States has undergone a great development and expansion during the last 50 or 60 years. While there were but 149 hospitals with 34,453 beds in the country in 1873, a survey made by *The Modern Hospital* showed that in 1928 there were 7,269 hospitals, excluding those of 10 beds and less, with 864,697 patients' beds. This is inclusive of general hospitals, sanatoria, hospitals in allied institutions, surgical and industrial hospitals, and those for specified diseases or classes of patients—children, convalescents, maternity cases, contagious and infectious diseases, tuberculosis, skin diseases and cancer, eye, ear, nose and throat diseases, and mental and nervous diseases. There are al-

most as many beds in hospitals for mental and nervous patients as in all others combined. These figures indicate that there is one hospital bed for every 221 inhabitants in the country. The facilities are not, however, evenly distributed and in some sections they are woefully lacking. The survey showed that 20.8 per cent of all hospitals were in cities of over 100,000 population, while 51.7 per cent were in towns of 10,000 population or less; that 29.7 per cent of all hospital beds were in the large cities, while 42.2 per cent were in the semi-rural or small towns. The average size of hospitals has shown a decline. In 1873 there was an average of 238 beds, while in 1928 the average was 125. Hospitals of 40 beds or less constituted 47.5 per cent of the total, and 74.2 per cent had less than 100 beds each. This indicates the tendency since the World War to establish hospitals in the small towns and rural districts.

Because of the demands of modern medicine physicians require the aid of X-ray, clinical laboratories, and other non-portable and expensive equipment, and the service of skilled nurses and technicians. It is chiefly through the development of hospital and health centers in the rural districts that such facilities and assistants can be made available and the benefits of modern science be brought to the less densely populated sections of the country. The work of the Commonwealth Fund, through its Rural Hospital Division and that of the Duke Endowment, has demonstrated the value of the small hospital to the rural district. The influence of their activities will be far reaching and of great assistance in solving the rural health problem and in improving the present faulty distribution of physicians and nurses. *See* Health Demonstrations and Public Health, Local Agencies.

In 1928 there were 877,075 beds in hospitals of all sizes. Of these, 425,122 beds were in institutions caring for chronic diseases—chiefly nervous and mental—and for convalescents. The remaining 451,953 beds, in hospitals of the general class, were estimated to have an average occupancy of 67 per cent. In such hospitals there were, therefore, an average of 149,145 unoccupied beds. It must be remembered, however, that this is an average. Since there is a considerable seasonal variation in the demand for hospital facilities, on many days in the year there are, in all probability, comparatively few vacant beds. An average occupancy of 80 per cent is regarded by hospital authorities as indicating full use, and a higher average occupancy usually means overcrowding at certain seasons.

It has also been shown that hospitals average approximately nine employes for each ten beds. On the basis of the figures cited, therefore, it is indicated that the total daily population of these institutions, including both patients and personnel, approximates 1,474,781 persons. Statisticians have estimated that ten million persons are admitted as resident patients each year.

Hospitals in increasing numbers are establishing out-patient departments. The figures for 1928 indicate that there were more than 4,000 such general and special clinics serving ambulatory patients and that about eight million persons received treatment in them. This development has taken place almost entirely since 1900, for prior to that year there were very few out-patient departments in existence. *See* Clinics and Out-Patient Departments.

Beds for convalescent care in sanatoria and convalescent homes numbered only slightly over 7,000 at the end of 1928. This phase of hospital care, as well as that having to do with the care and treatment of chronic diseases, is receiving much more attention than formerly. As the importance of these phases of hospital care is becoming evident to the health workers and to the public, a marked increase in both institutions and beds is to be expected. *See* Convalescent Care and Chronic Diseases.

The increase since 1910 in the number of social service departments has been very marked. In the absence of definite data, statistics cannot be given, but the influence

of social service work on the care of the patient has been a very pronounced and beneficial one. *See* HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORK.

The activities of the several national hospital associations, especially those of the American Hospital Association, have redounded to the benefit of the hospitals of America, and their influence has also been felt in many foreign countries. While their activities lie mainly in the field of administration, organization, construction and equipment, they have been of material assistance in advising hospitals concerning the most recent developments and have aided them in keeping abreast of the advances in medical science. The "standardization program" of the American College of Surgeons has also been of great value in that it has materially improved professional service in the hospital, and has thereby increased the institution's efficiency.

The Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association through its inspection and approval of hospitals for interne service has likewise contributed greatly to the improvement and development of these agencies. The establishment in Chicago by the American Conference on Hospital Service of the Hospital Library Bureau, which in 1929 was taken over and continued by the American Hospital Association, was one of the major developments of the last 10 years. Through this library a wealth of literature on all subjects related to hospitals has been made available to the entire field.

Developments and Events, 1929. The outstanding event of the year was the meeting of the first International Congress on Hospital Service, held in Atlantic City in June. A permanent organization was effected and provision was made for future assemblies. The American Conference on Hospital Service devoted an entire day to a discussion of convalescent care at the Annual Congress on Medical Education and Hospitals, held under the auspices of the American Medical Association in Chicago in February. The Columbia University Medical Center in New York City—consisting of hospitals, dispensary, and medical, dental, and nursing schools—was the largest single development of the year. It is also the largest and most complete unit of its kind in existence, and is representative of the modern trend in hospitals and in medical education.

Among the studies in progress during the year were a survey of hospitals in Portland, Ore.; a study of hospital costs in Grand Rapids, Mich., under the auspices of the Welfare Union; a study of hospital care for chronic cases in Maryland; and health and hospital surveys in Washington, D. C., and in Philadelphia.

Legislation, 1929. Among the many laws enacted during the year in relation to hospitals, the following may be regarded as the more significant: A California law (Ch. 43, Senate Constitutional Amendment 6) exempted from taxation any hospital or sanatorium, charitable or otherwise, not conducted for private profit; an Indiana law (Ch. 87) directed every public utility company, whether privately or publicly owned, to furnish utility service free of charge to any hospital which accepts and cares for charity patients; and an Ohio law (House Bill No. 13) provided that counties shall pay for hospital care supplied their legal residents, when indigent, in a hospital in another county, and that villages and townships shall pay for hospital care supplied to their legal residents in a hospital in another city, village, or township within the same county. Other laws passed in Michigan, New Jersey, and Texas show the trend in legislation at present toward increasing support of hospitals from public funds.

CONSULT: Burdett, Henry C.: *Hospitals and Asylums of the World*, Vol. III, 1893; *Modern Hospital Year Book*, 1929; also transactions and bulletins of the American Hospital Association, and of the American College of Surgeons, reports of annual congresses of the Council on Medical Education and Hospitals of the American Medical Association, and transactions of the International

Congress, 1929. Local studies include: Davis, Michael M., Jr.: *Cleveland Hospital and Health Survey* (Cleveland Hospital Council), 1920; Hicks, Mary L.: *Hospitals of Cincinnati* (Helen S. Trounstine Foundation), 1925; Boston Council of Social Agencies: *Chronic Diseases in Boston*, 1927.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORK. The primary purpose of medical social work—also known as medical social service, or hospital social work or service—is to further the medical care of the patient by a method of medical social case study and treatment. Its major activity is, therefore, medical social case work. The method is that of social case work correlated with medical treatment. It requires the assembling and analyzing of data and the outlining and carrying through of an integrated medical social plan. Its basis is the medical need of the patient—a need which may be aggravated by social conditions and may therefore require social as well as medical treatment. This service contributes to the physician's understanding of the patient and his problem by bringing to his attention significant data regarding the patient's personality and environment. It may enable the patient to understand and carry through a plan of treatment, satisfactory to the physician, which possibly necessitates adjustments in the patient's work or home.

History and Present Status. The year 1895 seems to mark the employment of the first full-time social worker in a hospital. During that year, at the initiative of Charles S. Loch, of the Charity Organization Society of London, a worker was assigned to the Royal Free Hospital of London as an almoner, one-fourth of her salary being paid by the hospital and three-fourths by the Charity Organization Society. In the United States some 10 years later, paid, full-time social workers were introduced into out-patient departments of the Massachusetts General Hospital (Boston), Bellevue Hospital (New York City), and Johns Hopkins Hospital (Baltimore). Beginning thus in the out-patient department, the service was gradually extended to the hospital wards.

In the early American developments, as in England, the incentive and financial support came from individuals outside of the hospital. Inevitably, that form of divided responsibility proved unsatisfactory, and hospitals have tended, therefore, to take over the entire responsibility for organizing and financing their departments of social work. However, it is not unusual to find the early practice still followed, both in the organization of new departments and in the maintenance of already established ones. In many instances where the transition from the outside support to hospital organization and maintenance has been effected, it has been most important and desirable to retain the interest of the original lay group, and in many places this has been done by the development of advisory committees on which are usually included representatives of the original group, social workers not connected with hospitals, physicians of the hospital staff who are especially interested in the social elements of medical practice, and representatives of the administrative officers. Such a committee concerns itself with the development of standards of personnel and practice in medical social work, with the community relations which the hospital builds up through the social service department, and with new projects and programs.

For the purpose of safeguarding professional standards through group activity, the American Association of Hospital Social Workers was organized at the time of the National Conference of Social Work in 1918. In order to provide for local group activity coordinated through the central organization, provision was made for districts, and committees to conduct the usual functional activities of an association were provided on a democratic basis. Study committees to

conduct research into the methods and practice of medical social work were also organized. There are at present 12 district organizations and 14 committees. The minimum standards for departments of medical social work, which are incorporated in the standardization report of the American College of Surgeons, are the product of the Minimum Standards Committee of this Association.

There has been no accurate count of the number of departments of social service attached to hospitals since 1924, when 574 were reported (A new directory of social service departments will be prepared during 1930), but there has been a steady increase since that year in the membership of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers. The work, while widespread, is somewhat concentrated in urban communities. Although departments were first developed in the privately supported hospitals, they are now found also in many of the tax-supported institutions, federal, state, county, and municipal.

Conspicuous in the tax-supported groups are (a) The Veterans' Bureau, which in 1929 employed 90 social workers—67 in regional offices and 23 in Veterans' Hospitals. The emphasis in the Bureau has been placed chiefly on social work with mentally ill patients, but the trend at present is toward introducing more social work in tuberculosis sanatoria and general hospitals. (b) State hospitals, especially in the Middle West where there is affiliation with state university medical schools, have undertaken programs of social work which are making outstanding contributions to the health field and to the field of social service. (c) In many parts of the country, county and municipal hospitals, dispensaries, and health centers are doing most creditable medical social work.

Conspicuous in the field of private endeavor are the following: (a) Those departments in the large teaching hospitals where the practice of medical social work is being studied and research is being carried on into the social causes and treatment of illness. Schools of social work affiliated with these hospital centers are proving their value as places where students may be trained in research and field work under able direction. (b) In the special hospital field, also, medical social work has made significant contributions. Children's hospitals, tuberculosis sanatoria, and more recently hospitals for cancer and for the chronically ill have introduced departments of medical social service as part of the general organization. (c) One of the most interesting developments in privately supported medical social work during the past few years has been that of the American Red Cross, which now has a medical social service department employing 50 trained social workers and providing coordinated recreation service in six army and ten navy hospitals, and in St. Elizabeth's Hospital, Washington, D. C., under the Department of the Interior. The director of social work in each of these hospitals is responsible to her organization for case work technique, functions, and policies. She is also responsible to the officer commanding the hospital, and, as such, is an integral part of the hospital staff. This pioneering by the Red Cross has so successfully demonstrated to the Veterans' Bureau and the National Soldiers' Home the value of this type of service that social work is now a part also of the general programs of these agencies.

Among the significant trends in the field of hospital social work today is the tendency to expect social workers in medical institutions to participate in administrative as well as in therapeutic activities. This is especially noticeable in out-patient clinics when questions arise of determining dispensary fees or of the clinic management of patients. In 1926 the American Hospital Association adopted standards of out-patient work in which the following statement was made: "The gathering of social and financial information necessary to determine admission under the [accepted] policy should be performed by a person with training in social

work." This statement has probably done much to impress hospital administrators with the value of qualified social workers as admission officers. Likewise, the importance of social case work as a means to more effective study and treatment of clinic patients is becoming evident.

Social work in hospital administration seems to take one of two forms of organization: (1) a general department of social work under the direction of the head of the department, with one or more social workers and their assistants assigned to admission and clinic management duties, or these functions distributed among the case working members of the staff in addition to their case work duties; or (2) a separate department of admissions directly responsible to the hospital or out-patient department administration. Members of this type of department are trained social workers but are not a part of the social service department of the institution.

There is some tendency in certain medical institutions at the present time to provide social case work for all hospital and out-patient department patients, regardless of economic status. This plan is based on the principle that social causes of illness and social obstacles to recovery are not limited to patients in low income groups. Social problems in illness are not determined by income. In practice there are the outstanding examples of social work in government hospitals, private hospitals, and health centers where provision for social care is based upon the patient's social needs, not on his economic status.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. In 1921 a survey of the status of hospital social service throughout the United States and Canada was undertaken by a Committee of the American Hospital Association. In the report which followed the committee referred to the importance of providing more adequate training for hospital social workers and recommended "that the American Hospital Association form a committee on Training for Hospital and Dispensary Social Service, composed of physicians, nursing educators, hospital social workers and educators in general social service, to make further study and recommendations upon this subject." The outcome was a *Report on Training* published in 1923. This report deals with the nature of hospital social work, its relationship to other activities, and the history and status of training in 1923, and offers a proposed curriculum. The section on the curriculum covers prerequisites, personal and educational character of professional teaching, character of field practice, length of courses, and subject matter of the training period.

By 1925 it was clearly recognized that training courses for hospital work, in centers well distributed geographically, were urgently needed. The demand for well-equipped workers was steadily increasing. As a step in promoting the educational interests of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, an educational secretary was employed early in 1926. The work of this secretary has been primarily that of interesting certain schools of social work to offer special training courses in medical social work. She has also been the bearer of information and methods from one medical social educational supervisor to another, as courses were developed in the different schools. A special committee is responsible for the educational program of the Association and for the activities of the educational secretary.

In 1930 the following institutions will offer courses in medical social training: University of Minnesota, University of Indiana, Washington University (St. Louis), Tulane University (New Orleans), Western Reserve University (Cleveland), University of Chicago, National Catholic School of Social Service (Washington), New York School of Social Work, and Simmons College School of Social Work (Boston).

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year there was a small but noticeable in-

crease in the number of hospitals employing social workers qualified by education and experience in medical social work. Several communities reported substantial increases in the size of department staffs, either through the usual normal growth or through reorganizations. Two departments reported the adoption of new standards of personnel—one, a private hospital, requiring a Bachelor's degree and in addition one year in a recognized school of social work; and the other, a tax-supported hospital, requiring a Bachelor's degree plus one year in a school of social work, or one year's experience in supervised case work. The increase in number of qualified workers is reported as indicating the growing importance of the case working function of medical social work.

The districts of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers through their local study committees report that progress was made during the year in: (a) definition of relationships between medical social work and other community agencies; (b) activities of volunteers through study courses, new projects such as a children's library, and the organization of volunteer workers; (c) studies in special fields such as social work with diabetic patients, unmarried mothers, and cancer patients.

Other research projects under way during the year include: a nation-wide study of the relationship of medical social work to the social service exchange, made by the Committee on Community Relations of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers; and studies of the significance to medical practice of the patient's social relationships and resultant surroundings, and of the contribution to the institutional practice of medicine of the social case method of managing patients, conducted by the Functions Committee of the Association. In addition, a joint committee of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers and the Association of Community Chests and Councils, working under the auspices of the Local Community Research Committee of the University of Chicago and with the cooperation of the Functions Committee of the Association, made definite progress toward the preparation of a handbook on statistics in medical social work; the Records Committee began work on a minimum standard form for a medical social case record; and the Educational Committee undertook studies of the medical content of courses for students of social work and medical social work, field work for students of medical social work, the psychiatric content of courses for students of medical social work, and the contribution of the social worker to the education of the student nurse.

CONSULT: Hamilton, Gordon: "A Medical Social Terminology," in *Hospital Social Service*, March, 1927; Committee on Functions, American Association of Hospital Social Workers: "The Functions of Hospital Social Service," in *Hospital Social Service*, May, 1928; Cabot, Richard: "Hospital and Dispensary Social Work," in *Hospital Social Service*, October, 1928; American Association of Hospital Social Workers: "Minimum Standards for a Department of Medical Social Work," in *Bulletin*, July, 1928; *Medical Social Case Records* (1927 Case Competition of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers), 1928; Odencrantz, Louise C.: *The Social Worker* (Part II on Medical Social Work), 1929; Baker, Edith: "Social Service as an Administrative Aid in the Hospital," in *Hospital Progress*, July, 1929; Morris, Irene: "Social Service as a Diagnostic and Therapeutic Aid," in *Hospital Progress*, August, 1929; and issues of the *Bulletin* of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers.

HELEN BECKLEY
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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 586.

HOSPITALS FOR CONVALESCENTS. *See* CONVALESCENT CARE.

HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY. Since the days when women first left the farmhouse spinning wheel to tend spindles in a factory it has been an accepted principle that their work should be done under health-

ful conditions. Such conditions are necessary not only for the sake of the women workers but because a close relationship has been demonstrated between overstrain and women's health and the social consequences. Regulatory laws have seemed the surest way to guarantee proper conditions, and for more than 50 years in the United States, and even longer in England, legislation to protect working women has been an accepted mode of procedure. The most important statutes have been those limiting the duration of hours of work in any given day or week. Such regulation, as applied to women, is the only subject considered in this article. For legal restrictions of a somewhat different character *see* NIGHT WORK IN INDUSTRY.

The constitutionality of this type of legislation is based on the police power of the state to safeguard the health and morals of its citizens. Proponents of such measures have believed them necessary to protect the health of women. Similar laws have been enacted for children. (*See* CHILD LABOR.) In some instances regulatory laws apply also to men in occupations that are especially hazardous to the worker or that involve a responsibility which might jeopardize the safety of others through his fatigue. Such instances, however, although significant as indications of potential developments, do not compare in number or importance with the statutes relating to hours for women.

History and Present Status. Massachusetts was the pioneer state in enacting effective legislation relating to hours of work by women. For over 40 years, beginning early in the last century, almost continuous agitation was carried on in that state for the regulation of hours of labor of all persons. This agitation, strengthened by legislative reports and limited legislative action, approved by public-spirited citizens, endorsed by both political parties, and officially sponsored by the State Bureau of Statistics of Labor, finally met with partial success in 1874, when a bill was passed by the House of Representatives limiting women's hours in manufacturing to 10 daily and 60 weekly. The bill, however, was amended in the Senate to allow longer usual daily hours with one short day each week, provided the 60-hour week was not exceeded; also to prevent the prosecution of an employer except for "wilfully" violating the law. These two amendments made the law practically unenforceable. Similar provisions in other states resulted also in unenforceable laws, and it was not until 1879, when the Massachusetts legislature struck out the word wilfully, that the legal restriction of women's hours became enforceable. Since then definite codes regulating women's hours in specified occupations have been gradually built up in the states of the country.

Forty-three states and the District of Columbia now have laws regulating the duration of the hours of women's work, and in addition Georgia has an hour law applying to both men and women, but no law specifically for women. The five remaining states are Alabama, Florida, Iowa, West Virginia, and Indiana. The last state, however, prohibits the employment of women at night in manufacturing. Ten states and the District of Columbia have 8-hour laws (Arizona, California, Colorado, Kansas, Montana, Nevada, New Mexico, New York, Utah, and Washington). North Dakota and Wyoming have 8½-hour laws. Seventeen states have 9-hour laws (Arkansas, Idaho, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Missouri, Nebraska, New Mexico, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Texas, and Wisconsin). Sixteen states have 10-hour laws (Connecticut, Delaware, Illinois, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maryland, Minnesota, Mississippi, New Jersey, New Mexico, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Dakota, Virginia, and Wisconsin). New Hampshire has a 10¼-hour day and a 54-hour week, Vermont a 10½-hour day and a 56-hour week, Tennessee a 10½-hour day and a 57-hour week, North Carolina an 11-hour day and a 60-

hour week, and South Carolina a 12-hour day and a 60-hour week.

Twelve states and the District of Columbia (Arizona, Arkansas, Pennsylvania, California, Delaware, Kansas, New Jersey, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Oregon, and Washington) have limited the number of days which a women may work in succession; in the majority of cases six days out of seven. Thirteen states (Arkansas, California, Delaware, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Minnesota, New York, North Dakota, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Washington, and Wisconsin) have provided that a period of time varying from 30 minutes to one hour must be allowed for the noonday meal. Twelve states and the District of Columbia (Arkansas, Delaware, Kansas, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, North Dakota, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Washington, and Wisconsin) have ruled that a woman may work only a fixed number of hours—usually five or six—without either a meal or rest period.

Legislation, 1929. Maine (Ch. 179) amended its law restricting continuous work to six hours by exempting any telephone exchange where the operator during the night is not required to be at the switchboard continuously but is able to sleep the major part of the night. The provision requiring the posting of hour schedules was amended to exempt any exchange employing less than five women operators. Texas (Ch. 87) exempted from the women's 54-hour law superintendents, matrons, nurses, and attendants in orphan homes which are charitable institutions and not run for profit and not operated by the state. Michigan (Ch. 299) extended its hour law to women employed in hospitals, but exempted student and graduate nurses in hospitals, or in fraternal or charitable homes. Pennsylvania (No. 450) required persons violating any provision of the hour law to pay the costs of prosecution in addition to the fine imposed, and provided for imprisonment in case of failure to pay fines and costs. Rhode Island (Ch. 1316) exempted from its law regulating women's hours of work in manufacturing, mechanical, business, or mercantile establishments, any "women working by shifts during different periods or parts of the day in the employ of a public utility." Wyoming (Ch. 13) amended its seating and hour law for women by requiring the posting of copies of the law in but one place in the establishment, instead of in each room as heretofore; also the clause permitting overtime where an emergency exists if "time and a half" is paid, was changed to eliminate the words "or unusual pressing business or necessity demands it." No state made changes during the year in the maximum number of hours women in industry might be employed.

During the year an important decision was rendered by the Supreme Court of New York, Appellate Division, First Department (State vs. Elite Steam Laundry, Inc.), revising an earlier opinion of the attorney general as to the application of the statute of 1928 regulating the hours of women's work. The court stated that "an employer who works his female employees under a weekly schedule of nine hours a day for five days and four and one-half hours on the sixth day, may add under the express permit of the statute to the sixth or short day of four and one-half hours the one-and-one-half hours of overtime without violating the law." Thus a 51-hour week will be the result if the yearly allowance of 78 hours overtime specified in the act is distributed evenly throughout the year.

CONSULT: Commons and Andrews: *Principles of Labor Legislation* (revised edition), 1927; Goldmark, Josephine: *Fatigue and Efficiency*, 1912; Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *State Laws Affecting Working Women* (Bulletin No. 63), 1927, *The Effects of Labor Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women* (Bulletin No. 65), 1928, and *History of Labor Legislation for Women in Three States and Chronological Development of Labor Legislation in the United States* (Bulletin No. 66), 1929; Frankfurter and Goldmark: *The Case for the Shorter Work Day* (Brief for the Defendant in Error, Supreme Court of the United States, in *Bunt-*

ing vs. Oregon, 1916, two volumes (reprinted by National Consumers' League).

MARY N. WINSLOW

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 587.

HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT has taken its place in recent years alongside of industrial and mercantile employment as a problem demanding the careful attention of all who are broadly interested in human welfare. The maladjustment in this important field is so general and acute as to be known to everyone as the "servant problem." From the standpoint of the employe, working conditions are often quite unsatisfactory. The social stigma attached to the work is so strong that almost every other occupation is considered preferable. Within many if not most of the households employing paid workers the problems of hours, wages, duties, and living arrangements have seldom been frankly faced and adjusted.

History and Present Status. In 1897 Professor Lucy Salmon, of Vassar College, first directed serious attention to this subject in her history of domestic service. (*Domestic Service*, 1901.) From 1903 to 1905 an important experiment was carried on in Boston by the Household Aid Company—an organization which undertook to furnish trained household workers by the hour. It established headquarters where the so-called "household aids" were to live and gave them training under competent instructors in home economics. From 1897 on, the Domestic Reform League, of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union in Boston, made a series of surveys of local conditions in domestic employment, started a school for domestic workers, and conducted an employment bureau with a standard form of contract for domestic service. In 1915 the Household Employment Commission of the Young Women's Christian Association was organized, and its study, published as *The Road to Trained Service in the Household*, by Henrietta Roeloff, called for a limited workday, definite duties, and freer life for the houseworker. In 1919 a committee of the same organization, in cooperation with the United States Employment Service and certain New York interests, inaugurated a program under the Committee on Home Assistants. Two years later Scientific Housekeeping, Inc., was organized in New York City to appeal to a high type of employes who would give efficient service in the home on an eight-hour basis, or work by the hour.

A number of American cities have followed the leads suggested by these experiments. In Providence a Bureau of Household Occupations was established where trained women were placed in homes on a part-time basis or by the hour. Similar bureaus are now in operation in Boston and Hartford. In 1927, in Philadelphia, a group of Quaker women, in cooperation with the leading women's clubs and the federal Women's Bureau, made a study of the situation in that city. Out of this investigation grew a permanent organization, the Philadelphia Council on Household Occupations, which has continued to study special aspects of the problem, including employment agencies. The Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor made an analysis in 1924 of the records of the Domestic Efficiency Association in Baltimore (Robinson, Mary V.: *Domestic Workers and Their Employment Relations*, Bulletin No. 39, 1925). For several years the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association has encouraged such of its members as are in household employment to keep accurate time records and to improve their schedules of work in the effort to develop standards in their occupation.

In October, 1928, a two-day conference on Employer-Employe Relationships in the Home was held in Washington. The national committee which grew out of that conference drew up a program of research, emphasizing the need for a nation-wide survey of the present situation and for studies and experiments to determine satisfactory working conditions and needed re-

adjustments of work relationships. The committee urged that the individual needs of each type of employer or employe be considered; and called for a job analysis of household employment and an estimate of the value of employment agencies operating in this field. It drew attention to the possibilities of school instruction, at each level of a child's development, relating to homemaking skills and correct attitudes toward home responsibilities. It also recognized the need for a re-education of public opinion as to the great economic and social importance of work in the home.

Among factors influencing household employment are the growth of large cities, with apartment living; the use of labor-saving devices; the increased dependence on bakeries, delicatessen stores, restaurants, and clubs, and the rising standard of living. Restricted immigration has changed the source of supply of domestic workers and the number has actually decreased. Two other factors to be considered are the wide extent of general unemployment and the increased tendency for women of education to seek outside employment in order to supplement family earnings. Research may serve to clarify the relationship between these problems and find a way gradually to remove the stigma from household employment, so that such work may be utilized for men and women thrown out of other lines of economic activity, and may free professionally trained women to find part-time employment outside the home.

CONSULT: Andrews, Benjamin R.: *The Economics of the Household; Its Administration and Finance*, particularly Ch. XII, New York, 1923; Anderson, Mary: "Domestic Service in the United States," in *Journal of Home Economics*, January, 1928; Roosevelt, Eleanor: "Servants," in *Forum*, January, 1930; Watson, Amey E.: "Employer-Employee Relationships in the Home," in *Annals of the American Academy*, May, 1929.

AMEY E. WATSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 587.

HOUSES OF CORRECTION. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS FOR ADULTS, and DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE.

HOUSES OF REFUGE. *See* DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE.

HOUSING. Organized activities in the field of housing in the United States have taken two forms—the promotion of legislative regulation and the provision of model housing accommodations. Both of these activities are considered in this article.

Housing Regulation. New York City has faced problems of land overcrowding, high buildings, and room overcrowding in advance of the other cities. It has also taken a position of leadership in the comprehensiveness and quality of its legislation. The Tenement House Act of 1901, which applied both to New York City and Buffalo, was an exceptionally well-thought-out piece of legislation for its period and led to drastic improvement in old buildings, as well as remarkable changes in the requirements for new multiple dwellings. Its provisions regarding fireproofing, light and ventilation, maintenance, improvements, alterations and penalties have in relatively few instances been improved upon in kind. These provisions have, however, been strengthened progressively in degree through the Model Tenement House Law, and subsequently the Model Housing Law, both of which were drafted by Lawrence Veiller, author in 1901 of the original Tenement House Act. The Model Housing Law has served as the basis of legislation in many cities and in several states, such as Michigan, Minnesota, and Iowa. It has proved to be admirably adapted to its purpose.

Progress in housing legislation and its enforcement throughout America has been due chiefly to the stimulus and directive genius supplied by Mr. Veiller, who since its foundation in 1910 has been the secretary and director of the National Housing Asso-

ciation. With the continuous support and balanced practical judgment of Robert W. de Forest, who collaborated in the production of the *Tenement House Problem* (1903), the first valuable scientific study of housing in this country, and of the Russell Sage Foundation, which has backed the National Housing Association from the beginning, Mr. Veiller has been able to extend his treatment of the subject of housing to cover its many public aspects and has in recent years made its journal, first called *Housing Betterment*, and subsequently *Housing*, the outstanding publication in its field in America.

The present status of housing regulation is roughly as follows: Most cities with a population of more than 25,000 people have local building codes which contain some provisions (usually far from adequate) relating to structural safety, fireproofing, and sanitation of dwellings. It is ordinarily only in the larger cities that one finds a special section on housing, and its provisions apply usually only to tenement houses. Except for those states and cities which have adopted the Model Housing Law, there is only an insignificant number of cities in which the laws or ordinances relating to housing even approach adequacy.

The best devices for the enforcement of housing legislation are still those outlined in the *Model Housing Law*, by Lawrence Veiller (1920). In the absence of such provisions housing legislation is not well enforced, and builders in many cities find it profitable to violate the law and pay such small fines as they may be subject to on those infrequent occasions when they are brought before the court. Much timidity is shown by administrative departments also in the elimination of dwellings which are "unfit for human habitation." Except for a few rare instances where there are courageous officials with high standards, little progress is made in the demolition of such properties outside of those cities like Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and Cincinnati in which the administrative department benefits from the stimulation and cooperation of well-managed permanent housing associations. In the District of Columbia, however, the National Capital Park and Planning Commission employed John Ihlder during 1929 as consultant to frame a bill for the elimination of alley dwellings. The resulting bill was most skillfully drawn, and if passed in 1930 without serious modifications it will be the most remarkable legislation of its kind in the history of the country, and will serve as a useful model for other cities which face the problem of alley dwellings.

The most notable advances in housing regulation during 1929 were probably made in the State of Pennsylvania. Due chiefly to the Philadelphia Housing Association and to the Pennsylvania Housing and Town Planning Association, the legislature passed a comprehensive building code for Philadelphia (No. 413) and passed also a zoning enabling act for Philadelphia (No. 469). Important developments occurred also in California, Louisiana, New Jersey, and Memphis, Tenn. In New York State the passage of the multiple dwelling law (Ch. 713), applying to cities of over 800,000 population, was the culmination of a long struggle to displace the tenement house act of 1901. It is impossible in this space to outline the striking changes accomplished by the multiple dwelling act, which is 95 pages in length, and designed primarily to favor the skyscraper type of multiple dwelling. The subject is highly controversial. Files of *Housing* will doubtless reveal currently the limitations of the act and its enforcement, and will outline court decisions relating to it.

Promotion of Housing. For a century there have been attempts to contribute to the solution of the housing problem by the construction of model tenements. The earlier efforts were so ill advised that the buildings erected soon became obsolescent and undesirable. The best of the earlier model tenements were those erected by Alfred Treadway White in Brooklyn. The City and Suburban Homes Company of New York, organized in 1896 with a capital of a million

dollars, has been the most extensive builder of model tenements in past years. It has done no building, however, since 1924, though continuing to pay its regular dividends and an extra 1 per cent on account of dividends accumulated during the years when it was paying less than 5 per cent. Its most recent venture has been the remodeling of three old tenement houses on Goerck Street, New York City, comprising 71 apartments, providing each with bath and heat. The rents charged are approximately double those which prevailed before the remodeling and yet the buildings are stated to be 95 per cent occupied. Probably the most interesting of the Rockefeller experiments in recent years has been the building of the Paul Laurence Dunbar Apartments for Negroes in the Harlem section of New York City. The building contains 511 apartments ranging from three to seven rooms, and the investment cost is stated to be $3,300,000. The average rent for rooms is $14.50 a month. The buildings were opened in February, 1928. An unusual and excellent feature is the provision of clubrooms, nurseries, and playgrounds.

The Brooklyn Garden Apartments have provided 677 rentable rooms in 164 apartments of from three to five rooms each, together with a social room for adults and a playroom and playground. Rents range from $9.00 a month up, per room. The cost is $800 a room, including bathrooms and stores. Tenants are encouraged to subscribe for stock, and dividends are limited to 6 per cent.

Seven blocks in the lower east side of New York between Chrystie and Forsyth Streets and East Houston and Canal Streets have been acquired by New York City for street widening, and unused portions of these blocks may be leased for the construction of model apartments at low rentals. There are projects for the construction of cooperative apartments in this area. The best example of cooperative housing in America, however, up to date, is provided by the Amalgamated Clothing Workers Housing Corporation, which has built a large number of five-story brick "walk-up" tenements, with apartments ranging from two to five rooms each and covering less than 50 per cent of the land. These apartments are strictly cooperative in origin as well as in management and thus differ from those sponsored by real estate companies. An extension of this development is in process which provides for higher apartment houses with elevator service.

In Chicago the most recent ventures in this field include the Marshall Field Garden Apartments and the Michigan Boulevard Garden Apartments, the latter being built and financed by Julius Rosenwald. A recent New Jersey law makes possible the financing of model houses by insurance companies, and such projects are being undertaken by the Prudential Insurance Company, following the example of the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. In Cincinnati the Model Homes Company is planning to extend its construction of group dwellings for Negroes in the suburbs or outlying districts, making use of characteristic Schmidlapp plans.

The most significant development in model housing, however, has been that under the direction of the City Housing Corporation of New York, which has followed its valuable experience in suburban housing at Sunnyside in Queensboro by the building of a community of 1,000 acres at Radburn, near Paterson, N. J. This development has successfully faced the problem of providing well-built and attractive homes, largely semi-detached, as well as apartments in an extensive, well-conceived community. The most original feature in this "town for the motor age" is the elimination of dangerous motor traffic from the residential area by placing houses upon park land and having each approached at the rear by private cul-de-sacs for motors. An over-pass is provided also to protect children and other pedestrians from traffic. Houses are sold at prices beyond the reach of the wage-earning population. *See* City Planning.

Tax exemption of modern housing ventures which is common in European countries has been much discussed with reference to its application in New York State and New Jersey. Among the housing organizations that have taken advantage of the New York State law of 1926 and city ordinance of 1927, which permit tax exemption for model apartments in which rooms do not rent for more than $11 a room per month, are the Brooklyn Garden Apartments, the Amalgamated Cooperative Apartments, and the Farband Housing Corporation (sponsored by the Jewish National Workers Alliance of America). In general the movement for tax exemption is not strong in this country outside of New York, and no adequate study of it has been made to determine whether its advantages outweigh its disadvantages.

Cheap government credit for the promotion of improved housing for wage-earners is proposed from time to time in Congress and in state legislatures. Most of the leading countries of the world have such legislation, but in this country it has never received sufficient backing to overcome the opposition of real estate interests and taxpayers. There are serious difficulties in financing the housing of wage-earners, due to high rates for second and third mortgages, the high cost of construction loans, and short periods of amortization. No adequate study of this subject has yet been made, but there are prospects that it will be undertaken during the coming year. The most serious proposals for government credit since those submitted by Governor Alfred E. Smith in 1925–1926 have been sponsored by the Michigan Housing Association. So far its efforts have been unsuccessful.

Other notable advances in housing have grown out of the agencies for planning houses in wartime, especially the Emergency Fleet Corporation, and the United States Housing Corporation in the Department of Labor in 1918; the spread of city planning and zoning, especially after the publication of state enabling acts and primers on these subjects by the Division of Building and Housing of the United States Department of Commerce; the developments in the literature of subdivision practice and cooperative apartments, both by the National Association of Real Estate Boards and by housing and city planning organizations, and the putting into practice of their recommendations; the formation of the Architect's Small House Service Bureau, by the American Institute of Architects, to provide plans for single-family houses of from three to six rooms drawn by competent architects and sold at cost to the home builder; the formation of Better Homes in America in 1922, with the aid of Herbert Hoover, then Secretary of Commerce; the development of the Home Demonstration Service, through the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture, for the improvement of rural houses and homes; and the holding of periodic meetings, nation-wide in scope, by the National Housing Association and by the National Conference on City Planning.

CONSULT: Jones, Robert T.: *Small Homes of Architectural Distinction*, 1929; Knowles, Morris: *Industrial Housing*, 1920; Magnussen, Leifur: Housing by Employers in the United States, 1920 (Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor Bulletin No. 263); Pink, Louis: *The New Day in Housing*, 1928; *Regional Survey of New York and Its Environs*, 1927 to 1930; Veiller, Lawrence: *Housing Reform*, 1910, and *A Model Housing Law*, 1920; and, Wood, Edith Elmer: *The Housing of the Unskilled Wage Earner, America's Next Problem*, 1919; also publications of the national agencies listed under this topic in Part II, and of the Architects' Small House Service Bureau, Minneapolis, and the Institute for Research in Land Economics, Northwestern University, Chicago.

JAMES FORD

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 587.

HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN. The field of social work to which the title of this article is applied is sometimes designated by the titles "Boarding centers or clubs for

girls," or "Residences for girls." It is closely related to the field of girls' club work, for when buildings are owned by girls' clubs they sometimes contain living accommodations for a part of the membership. *See* GIRLS' CLUBS. Included in this article is reference to a closely related activity—the operation of room registries where girls may learn of available accommodations. In such registries houses or apartments are listed in which rooms are for rent, if investigation has shown that the standards of the registry are met. These standards concern the character of the proprietor, and the respectability, cleanliness, and comfort of the rooms.

History and Present Status. The need for wholesome places in which girls without homes in a given community might live aroused attention first in relation to immigrant girls, and homes were opened for such groups under Baptist, Methodist, Catholic, and Jewish auspices. Due to immigration restriction some of these houses have been closed. Housing for other girls and young women was first undertaken somewhat later, also under religious auspices. The early houses were sometimes governed in a way irksome to the girls. In 1928, however, the Eleanor Clubs of Chicago demonstrated that when houses are operated under a system of self-government, objection to rules and regulations disappears, for the girls share in their formulation. Equally important was the demonstration that houses could be operated without subsidies. There are now six Eleanor Clubs in Chicago, a new one having been opened during 1929. As far as known to the author there are only 13 houses for girls in the country which are not subsidized either by gifts of property or building, by tax exemption, or by contributions, and 12 of these houses have self-government. Most houses, however, only pay their running expenses from the income received. The rates charged vary from $6 to $15 a week for room and board.

Because there is no national organization which specializes in this field there is little assembled information as to the movement. No estimates even can be given concerning the number of houses in operation. The chief known centers of activity have been New York, Boston, Chicago, and the cities of the Pacific Coast. Two hotels for working girls are conducted by Junior Leagues in New York and Cleveland. In addition to the houses now operated under general social auspices are those carried on under Catholic, Protestant, or Jewish auspices. Under branches of the Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America 12 lodges are operated for business girls in cities extending from coast to coast. A directory of the Catholic institutions, issued in 1929, shows 199 homes in 99 different cities. The Lutheran Church has nine homes in as many cities. In a few cities there are homes under Lutheran, Methodist, and Baptist churches, and the Salvation Army operates residences for business girls in 11 different cities. Of quite different character are the dormitories provided for girls by Young Women's Christian Associations in 339 of their buildings in 266 different cities, and in connection with the Young Women's Hebrew Associations or Jewish Centers in three cities.

Cooperation between houses for girls in the study of their problems is stimulated in New York City by the Association to Promote Proper Housing for Girls. It holds a two-day conference each November. In San Francisco and in other large cities on the Pacific Coast there are local housing committees or councils organized for similar purposes. Recently these were united in a Pacific Coast Girls' Housing Council.

Wherever room registries have been organized on a proper basis, housing conditions have been improved. The first registry was opened in New York City by the Young Women's Christian Association, and that body soon organized other registries throughout the country. A bureau of rooming and boarding houses for New York City was organized in 1913, at the Conference of Working Girls' Houses, and its statistical and other methods, planned by experts,

were later accepted by room registries elsewhere. In 1915 these organizations were merged in the Association to Promote Proper Housing for Girls. A "hostess club" of landladies who are listed at the bureau holds four meetings each year. Jewish and Catholic room registries in New York developed from the bureau somewhat later, and representatives from all groups are now organized under the Welfare Council. There is a Cooperative Room Registry in Boston. The directory already referred to lists 35 room registries in operation under Catholic auspices in 34 different cities.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year 18 new houses were opened in eight different cities. An innovation in New York City, under the Association to Promote Proper Housing for Girls, was the opening of a house where rooms are rented without board. Each girl has a stove, a closet for utensils and china, and space in an artificially cooled storage room. What was possibly the first national gathering in this field was held at San Francisco in July during the meeting of the National Conference of Social Work.

CONSULT: Reports of the national agencies in this field; reports of the Eleanor Association (16 North Wabash Avenue, Chicago), of the Association to Promote Proper Housing for Girls in New York City (108 East 30th Street); and of the Cooperative Room Registry, Boston; also Young Women's Christian Association, National Board: *Housing for Girls*, 1930; National Council of Catholic Women: *A Study of the Housing of Employed Women and Girls*, 1925, and its *Directory of Boarding Homes for Young Women under Catholic Auspices in the United States*, 1929.

CORNELIA E. MARSHALL

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 587.

HUMANE SOCIETIES. *See* CHILD PROTECTION.

ILLEGITIMATE CHILDREN. *See* CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK.

IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES. This field is engaged with the social consequences of migration. Its activities deal with the experiences of individuals, families, and groups at points of crisis in the migration process; also with problems inherent to the successive phases of social adjustment which follow the transplanting of human beings. The field is often described as that of service to transplanted or unadjusted peoples. Its social efforts have in the main three goals: (a) To ameliorate the hardships, actual and mental, consequent to removal from native or natural environment and connected with establishment in the new and foreign environment of America; (b) to restore social security and to re-establish that social status for individuals in the new country which approaches the level upon which they lived in their original country; and (c) to quicken the processes of constructive social integration between groups of transplanted people and groups of the native or socially dominant people.

The field also includes efforts for social reform in four realms: (a) In public education, to remove discriminatory attitudes toward foreigners in general, and toward particular nationalities and races; (b) in the provision of public facilities, municipal and state, to equalize for foreign-born residents the opportunities for education and to give protection against exploitation; (c) in state legislation, for the purpose of protecting the civil rights of aliens; and (d) in modification of the national immigration policies of the federal government, for the purpose of reconciling the regulations and the execution of immigration, deportation, and naturalization laws with what today are commonly held to be the social rights of humanity.

It is necessary to mention also that other class of activity called "Americanization work" which sprang to life in 1914, spread rapidly and flourished throughout the war period. Its motives were confused and its activities very largely without standard. The word "Americanization" unfortunately

was often used to exploit that popular psychology of fear which always in every country may lurk in the attitude of natives toward foreigners, and which was fanned to active feeling by wartime emotions. Some genuine social activities were carried on under the title, but for the most part the term stood for a nationalistic and political effort to make assimilation a compulsory thing. Today, because of its nonsocial implications, the term has fallen out of use except in a few cases of survival from the wartime period. In such cases the work itself has been thoroughly transformed.

Immigrant social work is concerned with episodes in the experiences of migrants and of members of foreign communities over varying periods after migration. Its problems are caused by the important dissimilarities in the old and new surroundings in practically every realm of life. Particularly, problems arise in the difference in ways of living and standards of social behavior, in expectations of behavior in others, and in the bases from which judgments on most things are formed. It also deals with certain legal problems and formalities which are consequent to the political status of alienhood. It seeks to promote social integration by facilitating natural social exchange on a basis of art and culture interests and on civic projects between groups of native and foreign born. All problems within these categories are aggravated when there exist blocks in free communication between adult foreign and adult native sectors of the general community and between client and social worker due to a mutual ignorance of each other's language. Therefore a responsibility for seeing that English is taught by methods suitable to adult minds, either through private or public effort, is also a part of this field.

The size and character of the actual and potential clientele served in the field of foreign communities must be estimated from the United States census and the annual reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration. The census of 1920 gives American-born children having both parents foreign born as over 15½ million (15,694,539), and the number of foreign born themselves as over 13½ million (13,712,754). (American-born children of only one parent foreign born are not included here.) The annual reports of the Commissioner of Immigration give the net gains of foreign-born individuals through immigration from June 30, 1920, to June 30, 1929, as 3,013,523. These three groups (exclusive of families of Oriental nationalities) represent an approximately complete statistic of the foreign families constituency, and amount to 32,420,816, or a little under one-third of the estimated population of the country. They represent some 36 different mother tongue groups. Re-migration within the United States has distributed them throughout the country so that now they are found in rural and town areas as well as in cities. New York, Pennsylvania, Illinois, Massachusetts, Michigan, Ohio, New Jersey, California, Wisconsin, and Minnesota are the 10 states having the highest percentage of foreign families, in the order listed.

Certain nationalities at any given time present a more urgent need for social care than do others. The intensity of social need varies greatly with the successive stages of community evolution and social integration with native or dominant groups through which all immigrations pass. The degree of need depends on such factors as: (1) Breadth of contrast between original environment and that found in the United States—such as is found with rural people who have migrated to industrial cities. Climatic and political contrasts are often as important as are the divergence in social, health, and religious concepts and in inherited customs. (2) Recency of arrival, (a) of the large or matrix group, (b) of the family to join that group, or (c) of the individual to join the family. (3) Occupational opportunity. (4) Degree of social sophistication of the individuals, by which term is meant the variety of previous experience which tends to develop a flexibility in self-adaptation (Educa-

tion is a factor in this). (5) Age of individuals when emigration takes place. (6) Personality traits, stability and strength of character. (7) Classification as to status under the immigration laws. (8) Language facility. Language ignorance does not in itself constitute a problem, but it makes every other problem more acute by acting as a block to communication and by hindering intelligent discussion of that problem.

History and Present Status. The field of unadjusted peoples is so broad and relatively young that its social activities are still in a somewhat undifferentiated state. The tendency toward functional division of work, common in most fields of social work, is in this field checked by the necessity of recognizing another exceedingly important division imposed naturally by history and by the sensibilities and inheritances of the clientele to be served—the division by nationality. This is termed the cultural and psychological division of work. It is a characteristic of this field that both the functional and the cultural-psychological divisions are followed at the same time and in the same organization.

The divisions follow nationality lines. Representative persons of the different nationalities are employed who have lived the life of their nationality and so realize the social values and attitudes held important by their groups. Having also the language facility, they can deal with them directly, as person to person, on a basis of dignified communication. To the foreign man or woman this goes far toward establishing that sense of mutual respect which is so essential to quality in social work.

These "nationality" or "foreign language" workers constitute a comparatively new and an increasing group in the company of employed social workers of the United States. In general they have pursued their mission of interpreting America to the foreign born and the foreign born to America with marked devotion and intelligence. Increasingly they are seeking to add to the nationality or ethnic knowledge, which is their foundation equipment, education and training in American social work. Practically every agency in this field associates the nationality workers with native American workers whose equipment is technical and philosophic and whose work follows functional divisions.

The functional division of activities comprises the following:

(1) Immigration and Emigration Individual Service and Social Case Work. The purpose of such work is to aid immigrants at the points of entry to the country, both at land ports and seaports, to solve adequately problems arising from illness, other physical or mental disability, lack of funds, loss of papers, confusion in testimony, irregularity in visas, uncertainty of classification, disruption of family, prolonged detention, and other accidents and inhibitions suffered by immigrants or relatives connected with the processes of admission, debarment, and deportation, as administered under United States immigration, public health, and deportation laws.

Travelers aid in disembarking, in continuance of the journey, and at the ultimate destination, with many types of individual service along the way, constitutes an additional general activity.

(2) International Case Work. Its purpose is to aid individuals and families in securing adequate social and legal information preparatory to migration or repatriation of themselves or of relatives or of friends; to aid in the sound solution of a great variety of individual and family problems—involving health, dependency, domestic adjustments, legal settlement of estates, reunion of families, and guardianship of minors, during and long after migration—where action is required in two or more countries. International case service in behalf of the needs or obligations of persons in this country can now be had in approximately 25 other countries.

(3) Foreign Communities Work. This is the largest division of the field and embraces

many distinct subdivisions, as follows: (a) Social care of newly arrived immigrants in the community of ultimate destination; friendly visiting in the homes; and assistance in early adjustments to food, clothing, health standards, employment, and new associations. (b) Immigrants' protective work and technical case work to prevent exploitation or to secure rights of individuals who through their ignorance have become victims of exploitation by illegal acts or by imposition. (c) Family social work dealing with problems in which a "foreign-ism" constitutes an important factor or which require for their solution a knowledge of the foreigners' point of view which can only be secured and dealt with by a nationality worker. A majority of such cases are carried jointly with a family welfare agency. (d) Technical migration case work. This constitutes that part of an immigration port of entry case, or of an international case, which must be handled through interview and counsel in the community. A majority of such cases are carried jointly with an immigration port of entry case worker, or with an international migration bureau. (e) Interpretative work. In this an agency acts as representative on behalf of foreigners in legal or in business matters not involving the problems already mentioned, or serves as language interpreter for public or private agencies of any character when to do so aids the foreigner to understand, to be understood, and to act more intelligently. (f) Development of group activities, recreational and educational in character, in order to restore normal associative experiences to which individuals can be attracted. Subjects covered by these groups include history, civics, current events, child care, parental education, home nursing, political discussions, culture exchange, language study, handcraft, domestic arts, social music, various philosophical studies, and English teaching, when public education facilities are inadequate or inappropriate. Often adult education goes on within a foreign language. (g) Participation in and aid to the spontaneous expressions of group life of the nationality communities themselves. Great national societies have been organized by foreign groups for purposes of providing sickness and death benefits, for greater social security and social intercourse, and for conserving the traditions, history, and culture concepts of their own nationalities. These try to provide social outlets within the parental influence for the younger generation and also to promote an understanding of their group by Americans. Many of these groups offer cordial response to attention from social workers. (h) Organization of the community with events designed to associate leaders of the different nationality groups with one another, and Americans with all of them, upon common projects of broad interest to the whole city or area. Favorite among such projects have become international exhibits of handcrafts or home arts; Old World village exhibits; festivals with traditions rooted in folk-ways of the Old World; music; pageantry; and dramatic presentations.

(4) Social Aid in the Process of Changing Political Status. This is usually termed naturalization work or citizenship aid. Carried on in seven states as a public service under state departments of education in connection with adult education, it is also an important activity in several national and four independent local agencies. It involves careful interviews, investigation of facts, interpretation of law, and training for citizenship, and often some case work on special difficulties which are uncovered in the citizenship work. It also includes goodwill gatherings which contribute to the social integration of foreign with native groups.

(5) Education of the General Public. This aims to bring about more sympathetic and social attitudes and relations toward the more recent foreign groups. "Interpreting the foreign born to America" is regarded by both public and private social agencies as an important part of their activities. It is promoted by exhibits, conferences, the furnishing of lectures and resource material for students, releases to the public press of inter-

pretative articles of general interest, and publications in the form of bulletins and memoranda giving accurate information on current situations and the results of brief studies.

(6) Legislative Activities. These endeavor to bring about a more social policy in regard to the enactment and administration of immigration, naturalization, and deportation laws. Agencies have united in work in connection with certain outstanding issues such as those raised in the separated-families campaign of 1928, the deportation legislation of 1929, and so forth.

(7) Social Research. Although no single organization is devoted to research in this field, the field itself attracts a great many searchers after social truth. Investigations, studies, and analyses are constantly going forward, both by the agencies active in the field and by representatives of departments of sociology, psychology, and economics of many universities.

Of the 33 different agencies carrying some kind of social work program in the field of immigrant social work there are 11 which have well defined programs, with national staff, offices, and budgets devoted entirely to this field. These can roughly be listed in two categories as follows: (1) Five whose activities are both national in scope and influence, and which have bureaus at ports of entry, and also foster a series of local units which maintain continuous social work in the foreign communities with committees, special equipment, and a considerable number of employed workers for this purpose especially. These agencies are the Department of Service for Foreign-born of the National Council of Jewish Women (formerly Department of Immigrant Aid), with local units in this field in 25 cities and volunteer workers in a large number of other places; International Institute branches of the Young Women's Christian Associations in 55 cities and towns, with national headquarters at the Department of Immigration and Foreign Communities of the National Board of Young Women's Christian Associations; the Italian Welfare League, with local committees in three cities and volunteer workers in others; Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society, with six branches; and the North American Civic League, operating chiefly in New England states. (2) Six agencies which also are national in scope and influence but have no special local units with employed staff in other cities—the Foreign Language Information Service; International Migration Service, American Branch (with international headquarters in Geneva, Switzerland); League for American Citizenship; Immigrants' Protective League; Immigrant Publication Society; and the Immigration Bureaus of the National Catholic Welfare Conference. (This maintains a port bureau also.)

In addition there are perhaps five other national organizations whose main work lies in other fields but whose activities touch foreign-born individuals at some special point of migration or at some single point of interest, and which accordingly carry as a part of another program certain special services for immigrants. Such are the local Travelers Aid societies at port cities which protect arriving immigrants and connect them with care all along their travel route; also the National Council of Young Men's Christian Associations, in connection with its industrial program; also the Salvation Army, in connection with its immigration and colonization work. There are further perhaps six of the large church organizations which maintain activities in this field, either as a supplement to the work of the church or as a social contribution from the service motive of the church. Reference is made here only to those which are maintained on some sort of social work basis. Among these are the Immigration Bureau of the National Catholic Welfare Conference (previously mentioned in Group 2); Foreign-born Americans Division, National Council Protestant Episcopal Church; and the Board of National Missions of the Presbyterian Church.

State agencies are found as bureaus or divisions in State Departments of Public Welfare, or of Labor, or of Education. Social

work for the protection of immigrants, or for aid to citizenship or connected with adult education, is maintained by the departments of seven states. There are also some half dozen local agencies working independently of either state or national affiliation. Three of these are connected with municipal boards of education.

There should be mentioned also the activities of several of the independent nationality societies which provide aid, protection, and indispensable recreational resources to their fellow countrymen and their families.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. The number of full-time, employed workers engaged in some form of social activity in this field can be estimated at well over 400. It is impossible to estimate what proportion of these are trained social workers according to the standards of the American Association of Social Workers. There is a great divergence in the requirements of the different agencies, and as yet there is no general training plan. A basic training in social work is, however, being increasingly demanded, largely through the work of certain national organizations. Courses covering such subjects as races and peoples, mobility of populations, migrations, immigration of the United States, the international aspects of immigration, assimilation, and nationality "backgrounds" are given in 10 of the leading schools of social work, and also in a large number of colleges and universities. Shorter intensive courses are also given by certain national organizations for the training of candidates for positions in their local units.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year 1929 marked an epoch in the nation's immigration policy. The system of controlling annual immigration by a population percentage quota became more deeply entrenched through the final triumph, after three previous defeats, of the new principle of fixing the quotas by computations as to relative strengths of "national origins." That the numerical proportion of the different quotas was considerably changed was of less significance than the fact of the adoption of the national origins theory as a supposedly "scientific" basis for the regulation of immigration. This whole issue was the center of as bitter a controversy as has ever raged around immigration questions, and it undoubtedly had its effects on the social psychology of the foreign-born population.

Two federal laws of significance to this field of work were passed during the year. The first (Public No. 962, 70th Congress) permitted aliens who had entered the country before 1921 for whom no record of admission exists to register and by complying with specified regulations to receive "legal-entry status." Social agencies worked for this bill (endeavoring, however, to substitute 1924 for 1921 as the specified year) because as far as it went it removed one of the most serious obstacles to naturalization, and in so doing aided the further reuniting of immigrant families. The acquisition of citizenship secures the right to claim non-quota admission of wife and children; but three-fourths of the countries of Europe are now restricted to so small an annual quota that unless individuals have the privilege of coming as non-quota immigrants, thousands of families have no hope of reunion. The second act (Public No. 1018, 70th Congress) dealt with deportations. It was actively opposed by a large number of social agencies because it visited upon non-criminal persons the excessive penalty of banishment and exile, and because in effect its application was retroactive. Persons deported years before the passage of this act for infringements at that time regarded as minor, by this act became permanently denied any right of re-entry and liable to prosecution if attempting to do so. Although originally intended to rid the country of certain criminal groups, the act as passed contained certain terms which have led the social agencies to regard it as unjust and destructive, and they have announced their determination to secure its repeal.

In the activities of social work the develop-

ments of the year were in direction of greater recognition and use of leadership from among the nationality groups; more emphasis upon culture and creative-art interests, expressive of the groups' own aspirations; the opening of new centers and programs for Mexicans, a marked development in many states; renewed attention to naturalization aid; efforts to secure better appropriations for boards of education for adult English and citizenship instruction; and efforts to socialize the naturalization processes. In the course of the year a new organization was formed, the National Council on Naturalization and Citizenship, made up of individuals and workers from national, state, and local agencies. Its purpose is to study naturalization practices and organized naturalization aid, and to coordinate efforts for creation of a more constructive national policy. In Oregon a new public department was created for Americanization and for advancing the education of adult immigrants. New courses on social fusion and immigrant backgrounds were added to several universities and new sections organized in several state conferences of social work.

Public opinion showed two distinct trends during the year. One was a heightened interest in the international bearings of immigration questions, and of the treatment in the United States of the nationals of other countries. The other was in the realm of economics and labor. Organized labor's attitude became increasingly hostile to Mexicans. There were also local outbreaks in California against Filipino workmen. The nation-wide unemployment situation bore heavily upon the foreign born, partly because a high percentage of unskilled workers are of the more recent arrivals to the country and partly because public opinion supported the idea that citizens should have preference in opportunities for work. Aliens were thrown out of jobs so that citizens could get them. Three additional states passed laws prohibiting the employment of non-citizens on public works of every nature.

Among the studies in progress during the year were a continuation of the *Oriental Second Generation Study* at Leland Stanford University, backed by an appropriation of the Carnegie Foundation; a study of the second generation girl by the Commission on First Generation Americans of the National Conference of International Institutes; a study of *The Mexicans in the North and East*, by Robert N. McLean, to be published by the Home Missions Council; a study of Mexicans in the Southwest, under Max Sylvius Handman, University of Texas; a study entitled *The New Hegira—A Study of Mexicans in Transit*, by the Four-city Committee of International Institutes of San Antonio, Gary, St. Paul, and St. Louis; and three special studies on *Crime and the Foreign-born* for the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement by Paul Taylor, University of California; Max Sylvius Handman, University of Texas, and Jesse F. Steiner, Tulane University.

Less formal studies of the year, accessible in typed copy and mimeograph form at offices of organizations sponsoring them, were: *A Study of Mentality of Second Generation (Oriental) School Children*, by Reginald Bell, Leland Stanford University; *A Social Audit of Nationalities of Pittsburgh*, International Institute of Young Women's Christian Association, Pittsburgh; *A History of Foreign Populations of Philadelphia*, International Institute of Young Women's Christian Association, Philadelphia; population studies of the same source in Buffalo, Milwaukee, and Niagara Falls; and a study on *Citizenship and Naturalization of Married Women*, by Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, University of Chicago, joint project with the National League of Women Voters.

CONSULT: Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce: *Immigrants and Their Children* (Monograph VII), 1920; annual reports of the Commissioner General of Immigration and the Commissioner of Naturalization in the United States Department of Labor, and of the Surgeon General of the Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury; Bureau of Immigration, United States Department of Labor:

Immigration Laws and Rules of January 1, 1930; Drachsler, Julius: *Democracy and Assimilation,* 1920; Abbot, Edith: *Historical Aspects of Immigration,* 1926, and *Immigration: Select Documents and Case Records,* 1924; and the following *Carnegie Americanization Studies:* Thompson, Frank V.: *Schooling of the Immigrant,* 1920; Daniels, John: *American via the Neighborhood,* 1920; Park and Miller: *Old World Traits Transplanted,* 1921; Davis, Michael M., Jr.: *Immigrant Health and the Community,* 1921; Speek, Peter A.: *A Stake in the Land,* 1921; Breckinridge, S. P.: *New Homes for Old,* 1921; Leiserson, William M.: *Adjusting Immigrant and Industry,* 1924; Park, Robert E.: *The Immigrant Press and Its Control,* 1922; Claghorn, Kate Holladay: *The Immigrant's Day in Court,* 1923; and Gavit, John P.: *Americans by Choice,* 1922. Consult also: Brunner, Edmund de S.: *Immigrant Farmers and Their Children* (Institute of Social and Religious Research), 1929; Galitzi, Christine: *Study of Assimilation Among Roumanians of the United States* (Columbia University Press), 1929; Taylor, Paul: *Mexican Labor in the United States; Imperial Valley,* 1928, *Valley of the South Platte, Colorado,* 1929, and *Mexican Labor in the United States; Migration Statistics,* 1929; and Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *The Immigrant Woman and Her Job* (Bulletin No. 74), 1929.

EDITH TERRY BREMER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 587.

INCURABLES. *See* CHRONIC DISEASES.

INDETERMINATE SENTENCE. *See* PAROLE FOR ADULTS.

INDIANS. Social and educational work for the Indians of continental United States has been almost exclusively a function of the national government. Prior to the Grant administration it was organized primarily upon a military basis. The so-called "peace policy" was inaugurated at that time, and subsequently emphasis has been placed on education, social development, and assimilation into the predominant civilization. Reference is made in the preceding and throughout the article only to the so-called "restricted Indians," namely, Indians who are wards of the Nation and have not been declared competent to manage their own property.

Under the Secretary of the Interior the Commissioner of Indian Affairs in the Department of the Interior has the management of all Indian affairs and of all matters arising out of Indian relations. In the total number of Indians reported by the Indian Office —a little over 300,000—there are undoubtedly included many persons of mixed blood, probably from 75,000 to 100,000, who might be recorded by the census office as white and who have little connection with the Indian Office except in property matters, past or present. The number of Indians with whom that office deals in matters involving social and educational service is generally placed at from 200,000 to 225,000. There are federal Indian agencies in 25 different states. The states to which 10,000 Indians or more were accredited are the following, though by no means all accredited to a given state reside in it:

Oklahoma	95,518
Arizona	46,350
New Mexico	27,583
South Dakota	23,518
California	19,060
Minnesota	15,573
Montana	14,043
Washington	12,881
Wisconsin	11,530
North Dakota	10,526

Through the Indian Office, primarily, the national government renders all governmental service and does for its Indian wards many things which the average white citizen does for himself or pays to have done for him, or which are done for him when the need arises by private social agencies. In so far as restricted Indians are possessed of property secured to them by government action, either individual or tribal, it is largely administered for them through the Office of Indian Affairs and their use of this property is controlled by the guardian government. How this government control is exercised is a matter of great consequence in the social and economic advancement of the Indians.

The activities of the Indian Office most directly related to the field of social work, arranged roughly in the order of their adoption, are (1) Maintenance of law and order, originating in the necessity for conquering the Indians and preventing them from interfering with white settlers; (2) administering relief, originating in issuing rations to able-bodied adult Indians as a war measure after they were suppressed and placed on reservations; (3) furnishing farmers, blacksmiths, field matrons, and other employes to help Indians learn a new manner of life; (4) establishing schools, with the congregate boarding school as the dominant type, supported in part by the labor of the children and conceived in the belief that it was necessary to separate Indian children from their families and their Indian culture and tribal relations and make white people of them; (5) substituting individual ownership of land for tribal ownership in an effort to make Indians agriculturists; (6) medical relief; (7) preventive medicine and public health administration; and (8) vocational guidance and placement.

The main reliance of the Indian Office for social adjustment has been its school system. In recent years the wise practice has been followed, where practicable, of placing Indian children in regular public schools near their homes. Of the 67,500 Indian children in school in 1929, more than one-half (34,000) were in public schools. About 26,000 were in national government schools, and of this number 21,600 were in boarding schools and only 4,400 odd in government day schools near their homes. A little over 7,000 were in mission schools, which are almost always boarding schools.

The Indian Office now maintains 19 non-reservation boarding schools, 55 reservation boarding schools, 6 sanatorium boarding schools, and 131 day schools. In the boarding schools the enrollment (24,585) exceeds the capacity (20,905). The boarding schools are congregate institutions of the old type, and as a rule present the usual evils of institutions of an earlier generation. The diet and the provision for the care of the children have been grossly inadequate. Home economics teaching is the one field where the touch of modern training and experience is evident. On the reservations the work of the public health nurses is the most noteworthy sign of progress, although the medical service as a whole has improved in late years. At some reservations superintendents are making a real effort at agricultural education and community development.

At the request of Secretary of the Interior, Hubert Work, the Institute for Government Research in 1926–1927 made an independent survey of the social and economic conditions of the Indians, employing for the purpose a staff of specialists selected for this particular project. Its report, *The Problem of Indian Administration,* was published in 1929. It showed that practically every activity undertaken for Indians was below the reasonable minimum standards of progressive organizations doing comparable work for other classes of the community. The chief explanation lay in the fact that the government had not established and maintained proper standards of training and experience for its personnel. Salaries were sub-standard and working conditions trying. The surprising thing was not that many employes were not equipped for their tasks, but that there was a fair proportion of good ones struggling against difficulties. Many employes showed little or no sympathy for or understanding of Indians, were gruff and inconsiderate in their dealings with them, and were apparently ignorant of the fundamental psychological factors involved in dealing with people.

On the staff at the Washington office are competent persons in the fields of medicine, public health nursing, and home economics, all fairly new employes. Recently important additions have been made that permit adding agricultural extension work, elementary and secondary education, and personnel administration. A competent statistician has for many months labored under great difficulties, which apparently are clearing up. The office does not have competent persons in the

field of family case work, community development, and recreation. To the survey staff of the Institute for Government Research it seemed almost incredible that a national agency concerned with such a problem of social adjustment could be so completely out of touch with modern developments in education and social service.

The most significant indication of progress in the field has been the employment of public health nurses and their substitution for untrained field matrons. So far as is known to the author, however, the Indian Office has never required training for any of its workers in a recognized school of social work or in a recognized social agency. There are probably hundreds of positions which require the knowledge and skill in dealing with people which training in social case work aims to supply. Teachers for Indian schools, particularly those in boarding schools, need familiarity with the methods which children's agencies have developed. Closer cooperation between the federal Children's Bureau and the Indian Office is one way in which this may possibly be brought about.

The Board of Indian Commissioners is an official agency of the government which social workers might call a board of visitors. It is composed of distinguished citizens with a deep interest in and wide knowledge of Indian matters. They serve without pay. Apparently no effort has been made to have the membership of the Board representative of the several professions that are involved in Indian administration. It therefore issues general reports prepared by laymen, rather than technical reports by persons especially equipped by training and experience to investigate particular phases of Indian administration. The membership of the Board does not at present include anyone of outstanding training and experience in the general field of social work.

The greatest forward step during 1929 was President Hoover's action in drafting for the Commissionership Charles J. Rhoads, and for the Assistant Commissionership J. Henry Scattergood, both Friends from Philadelphia. Mr. Rhoads, at the time of his appointment, was President of the Indian Rights Association and had for years been identified with its work. With the support of the President and of Secretary Wilbur of the Interior Department, they are expected to reorganize and modernize the Indian Office. Appointed on July 1, 1929, they were mainly concerned during the remainder of the year in matters involving appropriations. Additional appropriations of almost four and one-half million are apparently to be granted, which will permit of marked improvement of the Indian Service.

Since supplying the social needs of the Indians has been regarded as the function of the national government almost exclusively, no secular organization of national scope has been created to do it, though missionary agencies have, of course, done something in this field. The Indian Division of the Young Women's Christian Association has particularly recognized the need for social service. Several national social agencies, notably the National Tuberculosis Association, American Red Cross, and American Child Health Association, have at times cooperated with the Indian Office and conducted special projects. The Boy Scouts and the Camp Fire Girls are planning to extend their work with the Indians during 1930. The National Conference of Social Work at San Francisco created a special Committee on Indians which will have a place on its program in 1930, and the General Federation of Women's Clubs has a special Indian Welfare Committee.

The Indian Rights Association, the American Indian Defense Association, and the Eastern Association on Indian Affairs are the three leading organizations particularly concerned with Indians. The Eastern Association has conducted demonstrations in public health nursing among the Pueblo Indians in New Mexico, and the Indian Defense Association has supplied counsel for the Pueblos before the Pueblo Land Board, but none of these organizations is concerned primarily with the social needs of Indians. Their chief concern is to secure a square deal

for them in matters of legislation and administration.

Although the Indian problem lies largely in the field of social work, it has been little affected by modern progressive thought in this field. Trained social workers are at present barely represented among the 5,000 employes under the supervision of the Indian Office. That Office has not sought them, hitherto, and with salaries and working conditions such as they have been it possibly could not have obtained them had it realized that they were needed. Under the new administration it is hoped that a call will be issued for socially trained people for the different positions. If such a call is issued, an opportunity will be presented for constructive social work in behalf of a race which has been oppressed and submerged since the advent of the white man in America.

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LEWIS MERIAM

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS present one of the most serious problems which the modern machine age has developed. This article deals with that problem and with the efforts made for its solution. For a closely related problem, not considered here, *see* OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

There are no complete statistics on this subject for the United States in relation to any important industry. Statistics from individual states as to accidents reported under their workmen's compensation acts are not comparable, and therefore cannot be combined in a total for the country as a whole. The most reliable figures have been collected by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics since 1907 for the iron and steel industry, by the Federal Bureau of Mines since the same year for mining and quarrying, and by the Interstate Commerce Commission since 1888 for railways. The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics estimated that 23,000 fatal accidents occurred in industry in 1926, and in addition 2,500,000 non-fatal accidents, causing disabilities which lasted beyond the day on which the accident occurred. An estimate by the National Safety Council for 1928 was 24,000 fatal accidents and 3,250,000 non-fatal accidents of the same specified degree.

History and Present Status of Accident Prevention. It was inevitable that so serious a public problem would lead to legislation. The earliest law requiring accidents to be reported was enacted in Massachusetts in 1886. Child labor laws, women's labor laws, laws requiring physical examinations and specified physical qualifications of employes entering extremely hazardous occupations, and a few laws which prohibit the use of dangerous substances, all have accident prevention as one of their purposes. But the most important laws dealing with accidents are those which seek to regulate the conditions of employment so as to make them reasonably safe. In 1877 Massachusetts passed the first law requiring factory safeguards. It provided for the guarding of belting, shafting, and gearing, prohibited the cleaning of moving machinery, required elevators and hoist-ways to be protected, and called for a sufficient means of egress in case of fire. Such provisions have since become numerous in the laws of the country.

In 1907 Massachusetts again initiated a

new type of regulation by creating a Board of Boiler Rules, with representatives of the boiler manufacturers, insurance companies, and those using boilers, as well as several experts. After public hearings the Board was to formulate rules for the construction, installation, operation, and inspection of steam boilers; and these rules had the full force of law. The advantage of this method of regulation was that the legislature did not have to legislate in detail concerning industrial hazards. That is a well-nigh hopeless task, since the legislature cannot easily avail itself of expert knowledge, and industrial technique changes rapidly. In 1911 the Wisconsin legislature passed a law requiring that all places of employment be reasonably safe, and directing the Industrial Commission to fix standards of safety. This was the real beginning of what is now known as safety-code legislation. Other states enacted similar provisions, notably New Jersey, New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Massachusetts, and California.

Not only must statutes or codes be enforced, to be effective, but employers must be instructed as to how best to comply with them. Factory inspectors are therefore attached to most state bureaus of labor. At the present time every state in the country has some agency for the enforcement of its safety legislation, although in some states this agency has other functions as well.

Among the most important of private activities for the reduction of accidents is the "safety first" movement, started by the railroads. The United States Steel Corporation, in 1901, was the first industrial establishment which undertook organized safety work. In 1907 the Association of Iron and Steel Electrical Engineers organized a safety committee and later formed the Cooperative Safety Congress which was finally merged in the National Safety Council. *See* SAFETY EDUCATION. The American Museum of Natural History set up a safety exhibit in 1907 under the auspices of the American Institute of Social Service. In 1911 this display developed into the American Museum of Safety. Casualty insurance companies also undertake safety work in an effort to reduce losses under their policies. Their greatest problem is the small plant. Large plants are in a position to employ safety engineers and develop organized safety activities, but the small plant often finds it difficult to make the financial outlay necessary to bring about safe working conditions.

In spite of all public and private efforts for accident prevention, there are probably more accidents in industry today, in proportion to man hours worked, than occurred 10 years ago. States having workmen's compensation acts observed a marked increase of accidents from 1914 to 1920, attributed to the wartime influx of inexperienced workers into industry, particularly women and persons from the rural districts. However, as the number of accidents continued to mount steadily after the war, the cause is probably to be found in the increased intensity of industrial activity, the concentration of employes in larger numbers, the use of larger machinery, the handling of larger units of material, and the speeding up of all operations.

History and Present Status of Workmen's Compensation Laws. Such laws came into existence in this country because of the conviction that employes were not adequately protected by the statutory and common law liability of employers for injuries suffered by their workmen, particularly since under such laws negligence by the employer must be proved. Employer's liability had, in fact, fallen into disrepute because of the expensive litigation, long delays, and discord it entailed, and because it was usually impossible in modern industry definitely to allocate personal responsibility for accidents. Workmen's compensation acts entirely eliminated this question of negligence and provided definite and immediate benefits for the injured. Such acts have a great value in providing an immediate financial incentive to the employer

to reduce accidents. The first law passed in the country was the federal act of 1908, applying only to a few federal employes. The first constitutional compensation acts of state governments were passed in 1911, and at the present time there are only four states which do not have such laws. These states are Arkansas, Florida, Mississippi, and South Carolina.

Existing laws differ widely in their application. Most of them exclude agriculture and domestic service and establishments with a small number of employes. Practically all laws require payment of medical costs, and payment of a specified percentage of the average weekly wage during temporary disability. Most laws also have a definite schedule of benefits for various types of permanent disability, although some states compensate permanent disabilities on the basis of reduced earning capacity, as evidenced by wages which the injured employe is able to earn after his injury and those which he earned before. The laws also allow death benefits, the amount varying with the extent of dependency. Most states permit employers to be exempt from carrying insurance upon proper showing of financial ability, and usually also permit them a choice as to the type of insurance carriers they wish to have cover their risk, if they desire to insure it. A few states, however, have state insurance funds to which employers are required to make payments according to the character of their operations.

Most compensation acts are administered by commissions rather than by courts. No state has ever changed from commission to court administration, but many states which once had court administration have changed to administration by commissions. The obvious advantages of the latter are more careful supervision of settlements, greater simplicity of procedure, speed in disposition of cases, and reduced cost. The most fundamental advantage is that a commission, as a specialized agency, develops expert knowledge and expert methods which the courts, dealing with a variety of subjects, are unable to develop.

Developments and Events, 1929. The outstanding event in this field in 1929 was the adoption of a workmen's compensation act in North Carolina. Studies in progress during the year include the following: The administration of workmen's compensation laws in relation to injured minors, by the United States Children's Bureau; double compensation cases of minors, by the New York State Labor Department; industrial accidents in the United States, by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics; a survey of the entire field of labor law administration, including the administration of workmen's compensation acts, by the American Association for Labor Legislation; and a special study of the subject of workmen's compensation, including administration, by the Commonwealth Fund, under the direction of Walter F. Dodd, professor of law, Yale University.

CONSULT: Beyer, D. S.: *Industrial Accident Prevention,* 1928; Downey, E. H.: *Workmen's Compensation,* 1924; Bowers, E. L.: *Is it Safe to Work?—A Study of Industrial Accidents,* 1930; National Safety Council: *Proceedings,* 1928; Woodbury, R. M.: *Workers' Health and Safety—A Statistical Program,* 1927; Michelbacher and Nial: *Workmen's Compensation Insurance,* 1925; McCahan, David: *State Insurance in the United States,* 1929; International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions: *Proceedings* (published as bulletins of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics); and United States Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Statistics of Industrial Accidents in the United States to the End of 1927* (Bulletin No. 490), 1929.

FRED M. WILCOX

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

INDUSTRIAL DISEASES. *See* OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION. *See* VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

INDUSTRIAL HOMEWORK. *See* HOMEWORK IN INDUSTRY.

INDUSTRIAL HYGIENE. *See* OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE is a term applied to that form of life insurance which is specially devised for wage-earners. It differs from life insurance of the usual type in the fact that the policies are small, the premiums are collected by agents at the homes of the insured, and are generally payable weekly or at other short intervals. Naturally also the cost of such insurance to the insured is greater. The growth of industrial insurance since its establishment in England after 1850 has been very great. In 1928 there were 85,000,000 policies in force in United States companies for an amount of over 16 million dollars.

Most, but by no means all, of the insurance carried by families in the care of social agencies is of the industrial type. To many families such insurance means, chiefly, provision for a decent burial. In helping them meet their insurance problems, the case worker must give advice on the relative costs and values of endowment and whole-life insurance; how to conserve values from lapsed policies; on the possibility of conversion to cheaper policy plans; and the respective merits of extended and paid-up insurance. She must help them keep insurance to its rightful proportion of the family budget and teach them how to meet the agent's sales-talk. Failure to differentiate between the feature of protection and that of savings is responsible for much confusion among social workers as to conditions under which insurance premiums should be paid by social agencies for families under their care. Some societies pay for no insurance whatsoever for such families, some take out new policies for uninsured members; some pay premiums for adults only, some only for those who could not be reinsured if their old policies were to lapse; some pay only for sufficient insurance to cover the cost of burial, and some allow all insurance to continue, regardless of amount.

Developments and Events, 1929. In 1928 the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, with the cooperation of a group of family welfare societies and mothers' assistance departments, undertook a study of insurance problems in dependent families. Reports were obtained for approximately 6,000 families which had received relief from these agencies for at least three consecutive months. A preliminary report of this survey was made by Lee K. Frankel at the National Conference of Social Work in June, 1929. It indicated that life insurance is carried by a large proportion of the clients in care of family welfare agencies; that social case workers are frequently unaware of the problems connected with insurance and how to meet them; and that they need instruction and expert advice on the subject. Another report of this survey, from the standpoint of social agencies, was submitted by Flora Slocum, home economist of the St. Louis Provident Association. It called attention to the relationship of insurance to family budgets, to the values in lapsed insurance, and to the possibilities of conversion in the cases of overinsured families. The Metropolitan Life Insurance Company is continuing its tabulation of the material obtained through this survey.

To provide for further study, the Family Division of the National Conference of Social Work appointed a Committee on Insurance Problems in Dependent Families, and invited representatives of the Metropolitan, Prudential, and John Hancock companies to be present at its first meeting, held in November. A proposal was made for a handbook for the use of social workers containing information on insurance matters and the companies agreed to prepare this in the near future. Studies on the insurance of children and other phases of the subject were also planned.

CONSULT: Phelps, Harold A.: "Insurance in 250 Unadjusted Families," in *The Family*, Novem-

ber, 1926; Slocum, Flora: "Life Insurance and the Dependent Family's Budget," in *The Family*, November, 1926; Bullock, A. C.: *A Study of Insurance in Families Receiving Mother's Aid* (Unpublished), 1926; Phelps, Harold A.: "Problems of Insured, Unadjusted Families," in *Social Forces*, June, 1927; *Survey of Insurance Carried by Families Under Supervision of the Albany (N. Y.) County Board of Child Welfare*, 1927; Taylor, Maurice: "Insurance in Dependent Families," in *Jewish Social Service Quarterly*, September and December, 1928; Frankel, Lee K.: *Insurance Principles for Agencies dealing with Dependent Families* (Metropolitan Life Insurance Company), 1929; Grady, Alice: *Brief Survey of the Massachusetts System of Savings Bank Life Insurance and Old Age Annuities;* Burnett, Frank B.: "Savings Bank Life Insurance," in *United States Investor*, October 26, 1929 (This article and the preceding describe a new and little-known form of life insurance which is available in Massachusetts at a much smaller cost than is paid elsewhere. Both are available from 207 State House, Boston, Mass.); Carpenter, Raymond V.: "Industrial Insurance, United States and Canada," in *Encyclopædia Britannica*, 14th edition, 1929.

CAROLINE BEDFORD

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19.

INDUSTRIAL RECREATION. Provision for some form of recreational activity among employes is made by most of the larger industrial corporations. While the movement to furnish employes an opportunity to participate in sports or other forms of recreation is not new, the general reduction in hours of labor which followed the war has increased interest in athletics and recreation as a means of utilizing the leisure which has accrued through the shorter workday.

History and Present Status. A recent survey by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics of a representative group of industries, with a total of nearly two million employes, showed that more than three-fourths of the companies studied provide some kind of outdoor recreation. The facilities usually include athletic or baseball fields and sometimes indoor or outdoor swimming pools. Frequently companies maintain summer camps or country clubs which furnish holiday centers for employes and their families. Athletics in many cases are under the management of a club which receives contributions from the company, but is usually left free to plan its own activities.

Indoor recreational activities, it was found, are fostered by about three-fourths of the companies studied. Usually these activities are maintained by clubs for which the company may set apart recreation or game rooms in the plant itself, or may perhaps supply a commodious and well-appointed clubhouse. About one-fifth of the companies studied maintain gymnasiums for their employes, while several firms utilize outside gymnasiums, paying part or all of the fees. Bands, orchestras, and glee clubs furnish an opportunity for employes to develop their musical talent and to use it in club programs for the benefit of their fellow-employes. A recent report lists 679 industries with 911 musical groups and about 50,000 persons taking part in the organizations or in the community "sings" of the plants.

Recently the recreation activities of many individual plants have been merged with those of the community. The plant group may retain its individuality by entering its teams in community contests or events. When recreational activities are pooled in this way the cost to the employer is much lower, there is less tendency toward paternalism, and the welfare of the whole community is promoted.

CONSULT: United States Bureau of Labor Statistics: *Health and Recreation Activities in Industrial Establishments*, 1926, Bulletin No. 458, 1926, 94 pp.; Metropolitan Life Insurance Company: *Outdoor Recreation for Employees*, Report No. 76, 1928, 24 pp.; Bruere, Henry, and Pugh, Grace: *Profitable Personnel Practice*, Chapter X, "Organized Recreation for Employees," 1929; Clark, Kenneth S.: *Music in Industry*, 1929; Butterworth, William S.: "The Industrial Im-

portance of Recreational Facilities," in *Manufacturers' News*, March 21, 1929.

ANICE LADD WHITNEY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

INDUSTRIAL RESEARCH. *See* SOCIAL RESEARCH IN INDUSTRY.

INDUSTRIAL SCHOOLS. *See* DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE, and DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE.

INDUSTRIAL WELFARE WORK. *See* PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN INDUSTRY.

INEBRIETY. *See* ALCOHOLISM.

INFANT MORTALITY. *See* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE.

INFANT WELFARE CENTERS AND STATIONS. *See* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE.

INFIRMARIES. *See* COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

INSANITY. *See* MENTAL DISEASES.

INSTITUTES. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK and EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

INSTITUTIONS FOR CHILDREN. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN; DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE; and DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE.

INSTITUTIONS FOR THE AGED. *See* THE AGED.

INSURANCE AGAINST INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

INSURANCE AGAINST OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES. *See* OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK.

INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTES. *See* IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES.

INTER-RACIAL RELATIONS. *See* NEGROES and IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES.

JAILS. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

JEWISH CHARITIES. *See* JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.

JEWISH COLONIZATION. *See* COLONIZATION.

JEWISH COMMUNITY CENTERS. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

JEWISH SOCIAL WORK. Some of the concepts now prevalent in Jewish social work in the United States find their origin in the Jewish charity of Biblical times. All charity (Zedakah) is righteousness. Charity is a human obligation. According to the rabbis it was a means of salvation; permitting the rich to discharge their obligations, it was also a matter of social justice. Those who have means should give to those who have not sufficient, to permit the recipient of the gift to approach his former social position. Charity is personal kindness and personal service. A Kuppah or community chest to which all residents contributed was organized very early in Jewish history.

Down through the centuries many of these ideals have persisted. They formed the basis of Jewish giving, of family service, of caring for children and the sick, and of community organization, the creation of community funds, and the administration of such funds for the benefit of the whole Jewish

community. There has been some feeling in the field of Jewish social work that in certain respects its objectives in this country have been reached, and that state and nonsectarian private social work now satisfies many of the needs of the Jewish community. On the other hand, the Jewish population generally feels it should continue to bear its own burdens through its community chests, and should accept primary responsibility for all problems involved in caring for the members of the Jewish community.

Present Status. Jewish social work covers practically all the organized fields—family service, service to dependent and neglected children, service to youth, service to the sick, service on behalf of the handicapped, and religious and secular education. There is, however, an uneven development of these services.

Community organization is expressed in the Jewish federations, the first of which was organized in Cincinnati in 1895. Latterly, federations have indicated more patently, through a change in name, that they are community-planning and financing organizations, whose field is broader than mere "charity." Accordingly, though some federations are still called Jewish Charities, others are known as Jewish Welfare Federations or United Jewish Social Agencies, while one very definitely defines its purpose as the Federation for the Support of Jewish Philanthropic Societies. In the larger cities these organizations are organized primarily for the purpose of financing the agencies they include. In the smaller cities, however, they have a tendency to become functional organizations; that is, the federation definitely tries to develop and execute plans, as well as to guide its constituent societies in their social work. In still smaller communities the federation is really an undifferentiated case work society. Occasionally federations of each type have raised funds for national as well as local work. Latterly in 13 cities an effort has been made through the federation or through a specially organized Jewish welfare fund to raise funds for organizations not financed by a general community chest or Jewish federation, and for national and international Jewish appeals. Of the 58 Jewish federations in community chest cities and towns, 17 are not members of the local chests. The latter include the federations of Baltimore, Buffalo, Milwaukee, Philadelphia, Pittsburgh, and St. Louis.

A primary activity of the Jewish communities has been family welfare work. The older, professionally staffed organizations are as a rule affiliated with their federations; the others, not so affiliated, are more recent projects, resulting from the organizing genius of the newer immigrants. Sisterhoods and other synagogue relief societies antedate the communal organizations in most large cities. Often they have been merged with the affiliated societies, but a few still persist. Fifty-one affiliated family welfare societies spend a total sum of $207,000 monthly and carry a monthly case load of 18,500. The unaffiliated societies are legion in number. It is not definitely known how much money they spend. In New York City alone a community survey discovered about a thousand such organizations.

There are 60 institutions for dependent Jewish children in the country, 33 of which house an average of 4,000 children a month. All but five of these institutions are on the congregate plan. There has been a decided trend in the last 10 years toward placing out children in foster homes. Six institutions have placing-out departments. In addition, 11 communities have independent placing-out organizations, caring for 1,200 children. At the present time 4,100 children are in institutions and 3,000 in foster homes.

Jewish institutions for delinquent children are practically confined to New York City. There are a number of organizations in the country, however, dealing with problems of probation, parole, and preventive and protective care of boys and girls. In some—for example, those in Pittsburgh and in New York—Big Brother and Sister work is part of the general organization; in others,

as in Cincinnati, it is independent; in still others, as in St. Louis and Philadelphia, it has become part of a city-wide nonsectarian organization. There is an increasing tendency toward substituting professional social workers for Big Brothers in work requiring case work technique. In a few cities the tendency is to make case work with behavior problems a division of the family agency.

Jewish communities have done much to organize recreational activities, especially in Young Men's and Young Women's Hebrew Associations and Jewish Community Centers. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS—JEWISH COMMUNITY CENTERS. In Boston, neighborhood recreational work has been carried on through district welfare centers, which also house the district offices of the Family Service Department of the Federation. An attempt has been made to operate on a similar basis in Detroit and in Baltimore. Jewish settlements, in some communities called "educational alliances," number 26 in all, 12 of them being in New York City. They are generally in Jewish neighborhoods and have a distinctly Jewish clientele. The program is much like that of most settlements, though very often religious and educational work is carried on in addition.

Institutional synagogues have of late become an important factor in the field of recreational work. Physical facilities for such work have been provided, sometimes built as integral parts of the synagogue structures, and sometimes housed separately. Such buildings have shown a large increase in recent years, but generally speaking, the development of a professional staff for the activities has been hampered by lack of funds. Jewish social work has also found expression in summer camps and playgrounds. These are very closely related to the Jewish Centers, and in some instances to Jewish family welfare societies or educational systems. Twenty-nine communities maintain summer camps.

Many Jewish federations make grants for the training of Jewish youth in the religious, ethical, and historical aspects of the life of the Jewish people, not only in biblical times but in the present day.

The larger Jewish communities have developed a somewhat elaborate system of institutional medical services. Thus there are 53 Jewish hospitals, 38 of which have a capacity of more than 8,200 beds. In half a dozen or more of the larger cities institutional facilities are provided, not only for the care of the acutely sick, but also for the care of the chronically sick, for the convalescent, and the tuberculous; there are also clinics for the ambulant sick, and sometimes mental hygiene and maternity clinics.

Shelters for the homeless are usually conducted by the Jewish family welfare societies, though sometimes they are separate organizations. The care of the stranger is an immemorial Jewish social obligation, and its long history and the sentiment attached to it complicate the case work necessarily involved. The National Desertion Bureau acts as a national clearing house for the apprehension of deserters and for their prosecution.

There are 56 Jewish institutions in the United States which care for aged persons. Gradually these homes, in the progressive communities, are becoming institutions for the custodial care of the chronically sick. Some of them already carry such characteristic names as Hebrew Home and Hospital for the Aged, or Hebrew Home for Aged Disabled.

To supply the demand for trained workers in Jewish agencies, the Training School for Jewish Social Work was organized about five years ago at the instance of the National Conference of Jewish Social Service. Basic training is given in the New York School of Social Work, and individualized and Jewish instruction by the officers and faculty of the Jewish School.

Jewish social work is also concerned with the problems of its national organizations. Certain of these, such as the national sanatoria at Denver and Los Angeles, care for the

tuberculous; others, like the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society and the National Council of Jewish Women, deal with the problems of immigration; while organizations like the National Farm School, Jewish Agricultural Society, and Baron de Hirsch Fund are concerned with the agricultural and industrial adjustment of the Jew, and still others, such as the American Jewish Congress and the American Jewish Committee, deal with the general status of the Jew in this country and abroad. Support for such national organizations comes either from direct contributions, from Jewish Federations, or from Jewish Welfare Funds.

There are several national Jewish coordinating and service agencies. The Jewish Welfare Board is interested in the promotion of Jewish Community Centers; the Bureau of Jewish Social Research makes community surveys and acts as consultant in problems of Jewish community organization; the National Appeals Information Service gathers and distributes information to the Federations about the work of national or international Jewish social agencies; and the National Conference of Jewish Social Service provides an annual forum for discussion.

Developments and Events, 1929. The most important events of the year were improvements in methods of work. In the national field there were four noteworthy developments: Field service was established for the first time by the Bureau of Jewish Social Research, contact being made during the year with 40 different cities; a system of exchanging information concerning homeless men and transient families was started in the office of that Bureau; seven national agencies connected with the National Appeals Information Service agreed to conduct a joint experiment in fund-raising; and a conference was held by the Jewish family welfare societies to discuss the question of joining the Family Welfare Association of America. In local matters the following events deserve mention: A communal survey of Greater New York was completed and a merger voted of the Jewish federations in New York and Brooklyn; community surveys were also completed in Omaha, San Francisco, Wilmington, Camden, Trenton, and Jersey City and became available as bases for the reorganization of Jewish social work in those cities; as the result of a communal survey in Baltimore institutional care of children was discontinued at Levindale (the buildings so set free being used for a Hebrew home for the aged and one for chronic invalids), and the Jewish family welfare society was merged with the Hebrew Friendly Inn Lodging House for Homeless Men and the Young Ladies' Benevolent Society; in Philadelphia two child-caring institutions belonging to the federation—the Hebrew Orphans' Home (orthodox) and the Jewish Foster Home—combined their activities; the Chicago Jewish Home-Finding Society increased materially the number of visiting housekeepers employed in an effort to make them available for situations requiring more or less permanent care as well as temporary care; and the newly erected Beth Israel hospitals in Newark and Boston were opened, the one in Boston establishing teaching relationships with Tufts and Harvard Medical Schools.

CONSULT: National Conference of Jewish Social Service: *Proceedings* and issues of *Jewish Social Service Quarterly; Jewish Communal Register of New York City*, 1917; *Jewish Communal Survey of Greater New York*, 1928, and other communal surveys (Bureau of Jewish Social Research); Bogen, Boris D.: *Jewish Philanthropy*, 1917; Frisch, Ephriam: *A Historical Survey of Jewish Philanthropy*, 1924; *Fifty Years of Social Service; the History of the United Hebrew Charities of the City of New York* (Jewish Social Service Association, Inc.), 1926; Karpf, M. J.: *Social Audit of a Social Service Agency*, 1925.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

JUNIOR ACHIEVEMENT. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION. The organization of juvenile courts marked the birth of a new attitude on the part of the state toward children whose conduct made them subject to court care. Under the common law a child over seven years of age who was convicted of an offense had been treated no differently from an adult. He was presumed to be morally responsible for his own acts, and punishment in proportion to the seriousness of his offense was believed to be the proper method of dealing with him. There was little understanding of child nature, and the influence of environment on behavior was scarcely recognized and rarely given sufficiently serious consideration.

Today the state seeks to help the child through understanding the causes of his delinquency and applying individual treatment. Delinquency is no longer considered a milder form of crime; it is regarded as a symptom. The application of science and a sympathetic understanding of the child's nature enable the state to seek the varied causes of anti-social behavior and to substitute constructive guidance for rigid and destructive punishment. But the old theories persist alongside of the new. The minor delinquencies of children may be treated sympathetically and with the purpose of guiding and adjusting the child. But let a child commit a serious offense and there is demand for severity, with little regard for the causes and little consideration of what may become of him. In a majority of states even the laws which prescribe juvenile court treatment for child offenders make exception for the most serious delinquencies, and the state falls back on adult criminal procedure.

In general, however, the juvenile court marked a radical departure from established court systems. Though retaining in varying degrees elements of criminal procedure, in spirit and method it is based on the equity or chancery procedure long ago developed in the English High Court of Chancery. The purpose of the juvenile court is not merely to treat the child with consideration, separate from the adult offender and with more appropriate court machinery; it establishes also the principle that the state in dealing with the delinquent child, as well as with the dependent, should proceed as would a wise parent.

History and Present Status. The first real juvenile court in the world was established in Chicago in 1899 following the enactment of the Illinois juvenile court law. Two years later an informal juvenile court without a special law was established in Denver and a juvenile court law was passed in Wisconsin, applying to the city and county of Milwaukee. The New York City, Baltimore, and Cuyahoga County (Cleveland), Ohio, courts were established by special acts in 1902. From that time on the increase of legislation and in the number of courts established has been rapid. Today every state except Maine and Wyoming has a juvenile court law, and Maine has provisions for probation and separate hearings of children's cases in the regular courts. It is impossible, however, to state the number of juvenile courts with any accuracy unless a rigid definition is adopted as to what constitutes such a court. The nation-wide study made by the federal Children's Bureau in 1918 covered 2,391 courts dealing with children, but of these only 321 conformed to the Bureau's definition of what constituted a juvenile court. Both figures would now be increased. The latest directory of the National Probation Association, issued in 1928, shows a total of 3,702 regularly appointed probation officers in the United States and Canada. A large majority of these are serving in juvenile courts in cities, but since most juvenile courts are county-wide in jurisdiction, most officers do some rural work also. Such work is rapidly increasing due to a growing appreciation of the need and to the activities of state probation and welfare departments.

No adequate statistics are available as to the number of children coming before the juvenile courts. This is a part of the lack of

national machinery for compiling statistics on crime or the work of courts. Through the questionnaire study of courts by the federal Children's Bureau above referred to it was estimated that 175,000 children's cases were brought before all courts in the United States in 1918. That Bureau in 1927 began the collection of statistics of the work of juvenile courts. Sixty-five courts reported during 1928. These handled 38,882 delinquency cases and 16,289 dependency and neglect cases in that year.

As the number of juvenile courts increased, more and more varieties of jurisdiction and equipment were developed. In no field has there been greater lack of uniformity. A few special juvenile courts were created, but in most areas the juvenile court was made part of some already existing court, almost every type of court being used for the purpose. The early acts limited the jurisdiction of the juvenile court to children under 16 years. In 1929 two states had a 21-year age limit, 14 had fixed the limit at 18, 5 at 17, and only 9 retained 16. The other states had differing age limits for different types of cases. Many states had provided continued jurisdiction up to 21 for cases arising before the specified age. In addition to the varying age limits there were great differences in the extent to which the juvenile court alone was given jurisdiction over children's cases; not infrequently other courts have jurisdiction with the juvenile court in certain types of cases.

Juvenile courts today deal with delinquent and neglected children and in most states with dependent children also. In 17 states they administer mothers' aid. *See* Mothers' Aid. A majority of them deal also with parents who abandon or fail to support their children. But although jurisdiction over adults is conferred upon the juvenile courts by the laws of 41 states, the extent to which the courts actually deal with adults varies. Some deal with parents whose children are already within the jurisdiction of the court. Other courts possessing broad jurisdiction over adults deal with practically as many adults as children, and are in fact, and sometimes in name, domestic relations courts. The tendency to broaden the jurisdiction of the juvenile courts to include all cases relating to children and family relations is growing throughout the country. *See* Domestic Relations Courts.

Because of wide variations in equipment and procedure it is not always easy to decide whether a court which calls itself a juvenile court really merits the name. In the nation-wide survey of juvenile courts already mentioned, made by the federal Children's Bureau in 1918, the following minimum requirements were adopted for courts entitled to be considered juvenile courts: (a) separate hearings for children's cases; (b) informal or chancery procedure including the use of petition; (c) regular probation service both for investigation and supervisory care; (d) detention of children separate from adults; (e) special court and probation records, both legal and social; and (f) provision for mental and physical examinations. In 1921, following a conference under the joint auspices of the United States Children's Bureau and the National Probation Association, a committee was appointed to prepare a statement of standards. The final report of that committee was published by the Children's Bureau in 1923 (Bureau Publication No. 121); it represents a restatement of the minimum requirements just outlined, developed in much greater detail and with some additions, but the fundamental principles remain the same. These principles have been summarized as follows: The court dealing with children should have broad jurisdiction "embracing all classes of cases in which a child is in need of the protection of the state, whether the legal action is in the name of the child or of an adult who fails in his obligation toward the child"; the court should have a "scientific understanding of each child; treatment should be adapted to individual needs; and there should be a presumption in favor of keeping the child in his own home and in his own community, except when

adequate investigation shows this not to be in the best interests of the child." (United States Children's Bureau: *Juvenile Court Standards*, Bureau Publication No. 121, page vi.)

Training Requirements and Opportunities. There is a growing demand for trained and experienced probation workers, due to the failure of the untrained and inexperienced to measure up to the difficulties of the task. This is evidenced in the payment of increased salaries and in the higher qualifications demanded of applicants for employment in this field. There are but few opportunities for apprenticeship training. As a rule the probation officer must be given independent and responsible case work from the start. Hence the courts need to obtain men and women of previous successful experience in social case work.

Increasingly, examinations testing knowledge of the field are being given applicants for appointment. Civil service examinations are required in New York, New Jersey, Ohio, and in Milwaukee and Los Angeles Counties. Examinations or approval by state boards are authorized in several other states, and an increasing number of individual courts have required examinations by committees or outside agencies. The standards for entering examinations have been raised in a number of states. The usual requirement in New York and New Jersey is now high school graduation and at least one year of case work with an accredited social agency. Cook County, Illinois (Chicago), recently required three years of college work also.

Developments and Events, 1929. New juvenile courts were created during the year in Bridgeport, Conn., and Tulsa, Okla., and in Broward County, Fla. (Ft. Lauderdale), and a new juvenile and domestic relations court was established in Hamilton County, Tenn. (Chattanooga). New Jersey passed a law (Ch. 157) which provides for juvenile and domestic relations courts in all counties of the state; formerly only two counties had such courts. Two new juvenile court districts were organized in Utah. Training courses for probation officers were given for the first time at Western Reserve University, at Ohio State University (a six-week summer course given with the cooperation of the Ohio Probation Association); at Nôtre Dame University (a two-year course including field training); at Iowa State University (lectures in its summer school); and institutes for probation and juvenile court workers were held at the state conference of social work in North Carolina, Illinois, Missouri, and New York. Committees of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection and of the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement were organized to study juvenile delinquency.

Many additions to personnel were reported, with considerable emphasis upon the training and experience of appointees. These included the following: A state supervisor of probation in California; an assistant to the State Commissioner of Probation in Massachusetts; three field workers for probation survey work in the New York State Probation Division; a state supervisor of probation in the Child Welfare Department of Connecticut, and a probation officer for rural work in Delaware. New colored probation officers were appointed in Memphis, Cincinnati, Cleveland, New York City, and elsewhere; a psychiatrist was added to the staff of the Baltimore Juvenile Court; and in two Ohio counties (those which include Cleveland and Cincinnati) the juvenile courts were authorized to employ psychiatrists, psychologists, and referees. Increased salaries were provided for probation officers in several large cities.

The year in this field was a significant one in the studies undertaken. Those completed and published during the year include the following: A report on Probation and Parole in Pennsylvania by the Pennsylvania Crime Commission; reports on Juvenile and Adult Offenders in the counties of Beaver, Berks, and Luzerne by the Pennsylvania Committee on Penal Affairs; a report on

Juvenile Delinquency in Illinois by the Illinois Crime Commission; a survey of juvenile courts in Utah by the National Probation Association; and a Survey of Boys and Girls in Salt Lake City by the University of Utah.

Studies made during the year, but not yet published, include the following: A study of the detention home and its relation to the work of the juvenile court of Detroit by Sherman C. Kingsley; studies of juvenile courts in several counties in Pennsylvania by the Pennsylvania Committee on Penal Affairs; a study of delinquent and dependent children by the Child Welfare Committee of the Memphis Council of Social Agencies; a study of juvenile delinquency in Maine by the Federal Children's Bureau; and statewide studies of juvenile courts in North Dakota and Iowa, and city and county studies in Denver, Omaha, Tampa (Fla.), and Portland (Ore.) by the National Probation Association.

Legislation, 1929. In addition to the legislation required for the changes reported in the preceding section, the following laws were passed: In New Mexico (Ch. 74) the age limit for dealing with children in the juvenile court as delinquents was raised from 16 to 18. In North Dakota (Ch. 113) the court was given continued jurisdiction until 21. In Wisconsin (Ch. 48) a new law which conforms to the best standards was adopted. Jurisdiction of children in the juvenile court was made exclusive to 16 and concurrent with the criminal courts to 18 (formerly only concurrent to 16). Arkansas (Ch. 356) gave the juvenile court power to commit physically handicapped children under 21 to the newly established State Commission for Crippled Children. In the so-called "child marriage law" of New York State (Ch. 633) the approval of a children's court judge is required before a marriage license can be issued to a girl 14 to 16 years of age. The Probation Department of Hennepin County, Minn.—including Minneapolis—(Ch. 326) was given power to investigate divorce actions, to supervise the children in such cases, and to collect support or alimony. The juvenile courts of Idaho (Ch. 99) were given jurisdiction over adults contributing to juvenile delinquency. In Iowa (Ch. 90) jurisdiction was given over adults contributing to juvenile dependency. Improvements in juvenile court procedure were provided by California (Ch. 645); among others investigation was required before filing of petitions and child placing was regulated. In Delaware (Ch. 267) investigation was required before cases may be brought to court. Laws increasing the number or salaries of probation officers were passed in Arizona, Kansas, Missouri, Nebraska, North Dakota, Oklahoma, and Ohio.

CONSULT: Lou, Herbert H.: *Juvenile Courts in the United States*, 1927; Van Waters, Miriam: *Youth in Conflict*, 1925; Johnson, Fred R.: *Probation for Juveniles and Adults*, 1928; Addams, Jane, and others: *The Child, the Clinic and the Court*, 1925; National Probation Association: *A Standard Juvenile Court Law* (revised edition), 1929, its *Directory of Probation Officers in the United States and Canada*, its *Year Book* (Proceedings of the Annual Probation Conference), and its monthly bulletin, *Probation;* and the following publications of the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Juvenile Court Standards* (Publication No. 121), 1923; *Juvenile Courts at Work* (Publication No. 141), 1925; *The Legal Aspect of the Juvenile Court* (Publication No. 99), 1922; and *Probation in Children's Courts* (Publication No. 80), 1921.

CHARLES L. CHUTE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

JUVENILE DELINQUENCY. *See* JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION.

JUVENILE PLACEMENT. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

JUVENILE PROTECTIVE ASSOCIATIONS. *See* CHILD PROTECTION.

JUVENILE REFORMATORIES. *See* Delinquent Boys, Institution Care.

KINDERGARTENS were first established in the United States nearly three-quarters of a century ago. Two states of the Middle West, Watertown, Wis., and Columbus, O., dispute the honor of having been the pioneers in this field of education, Watertown claiming that the first kindergarten was opened there in 1855, while Columbus maintains that its kindergarten, begun in 1858, was the first in the field. However this may be, it is generally agreed that the first really successful kindergarten was opened in Boston in 1860 by Elizabeth Peabody.

Froebel himself suggested that the kindergarten, although not popular in Germany, might flourish in America, which was more receptive to new ideas. After 1870 this proved the case, and many kindergartens were opened in all parts of the country. At first most of them were philanthropic enterprises. The nation was just awakening to the new social problems caused by immigration. Immigrants arriving in large numbers tended to settle in congested areas within the cities. Missions, churches, and philanthropic organizations turned to the education of the very young child as the most hopeful form of social service in these districts, and placed the early kindergartens there. Many of the teachers donated their services, after receiving only a short period of training. Often they taught for half the day and spent their afternoons in social service activities. This close connection with social work has, fortunately, continued, although a number of the privately organized kindergartens throughout the country have now been taken over by the public schools. Other such kindergartens now receive children who are too young to be accepted by the public schools, and they have become practically nursery schools. *See* Nursery Schools.

In 1873 Susan Blow superintended the first kindergarten to be incorporated in a public school system, that of St. Louis. Miss Blow also organized a training school for kindergarten teachers, and from that time on the kindergarten slowly but surely made itself an essential part of the educational system of the country. Within the last few years it has become even more closely allied to the elementary school through the unification of kindergarten-primary education. Some teacher training schools now offer a kindergarten-primary diploma, and with the growth of nursery schools the unit is being extended downward so that teachers are being trained for nursery, kindergarten, and first-grade work.

Methods of kindergarten teaching have undergone much change. With the development of scientific child study in this country, and through the inspiration of such leaders as Francis Parker, John Dewey, G. Stanley Hall, and Patty Smith Hill, the old formalized activities of the kindergarten have given place to a more flexible program, consciously based on the normal interests of childhood and allowing freedom for individual development. Attention is centered on the building of right habits and attitudes and on learning to live together. The influence of this training naturally extends into the home. Parental education has always been an integral part of a kindergarten program and it has now an outstanding place in all nursery-kindergarten work. *See* Parent Education.

The following figures for 1928, provided by the federal Office of Education, show how rapid has been the growth of the kindergarten movement and the extent to which it has become a part of the public school system. The number of city school systems reporting kindergartens was 734, and the number of children enrolled, 606,283; 544 private schools reported kindergartens, with an enrollment of 27,310.

There are now many facilities for kindergarten training, as the teacher training colleges of most states and cities offer courses covering from two to four years, and there

are several good private training schools. Universities offer courses leading to the degree of Bachelor of Science to graduates of approved normal schools, and courses leading to the degree of Master of Arts to those holding the degree of Bachelor of Science who wish to specialize in education. This opens the field of nursery-kindergarten-first-grade education to many young college graduates.

Legislation, 1929, includes an Oregon law (Ch. 197) for the establishment of kindergartens in school districts having less than 20,000 children of school age; and an amendment to the laws of Delaware (Ch. 160), permitting local boards of education to establish kindergartens and playgrounds.

CONSULT: Hill, Patty Smith (editor): *Series on Childhood Education* (Chas. Scribner's Sons), 1923–1930; Parker and Temple: *Unified Kindergarten and First Grade Teaching,* 1925; National Society for the Study of Education: *Pre-School and Parental Education—Twenty-Eighth Year Book,* 1929; Davis, Mary Dabney: *Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education in 1924–1926* (Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, Bulletin No. 28, 1927); *Some Phases of Nursery-Kindergarten-Primary Education,* 1926–1928 (Bulletin No. 29 of that Office), 1929.

ALICE DALGLIESH
CHARLOTTE G. GARRISON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

LABOR BUREAUS OR DEPARTMENTS, STATE. *See* LABOR, STATE AGENCIES.

LABOR LEGISLATION. *See* LABOR LEGISLATION FOR WOMEN, NIGHT WORK IN INDUSTRY, HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY, MINIMUM WAGE, HOME WORK IN INDUSTRY, CHILD LABOR, INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS, OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES, LABOR STATE AGENCIES, EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES, VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE, and VOCATIONAL EDUCATION.

LABOR LEGISLATION FOR WOMEN in the United States has become a subject of increasing importance in the past few decades and one with many ramifications due to the various types of labor laws and to the many problems involved. The vast number of women who are employed; the great variety of their occupations; the conditions under which they work, varying in locality, industry, and individual establishments; the changes and developments in their opportunities that have been coincident with the enactment of the different kinds of legislation, applying here to one group of women and there to another; and the almost infinite range of the possible results of such legislation—these are a few of the aspects inherent in the subject.

Special labor laws for women deal chiefly with the hours of work in industry, night work in industry, seats for women workers, minimum wage, and the prohibition and regulation of women's work in certain occupations or industries. Laws for the regulation of home work are also included in the list, since women form a very large proportion of all home workers. This article deals primarily with activities and problems common to all forms of labor legislation for women, and a few special problems not covered by other articles.

History and Present Status. The middle of the nineteenth century saw the birth of legislation of this type, regulation of women's hours of working being the first of the special labor laws for women to appear on any statute book. The first hour law applying to women only was passed in Ohio in 1852, prohibiting the employment of women for more than 10 hours a day in manufacturing. It was repealed in 1879. The movement, once started, however, gained in momentum and finally led to the enactment of laws regulating the duration of the hours of

women's work in all but five states including Indiana, which, however, has a night work law for women. *See* HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY. Eighteen states and the District of Columbia have provided through legislation for such breaks in the hours of a woman's employment as a day of rest, of one shorter workday in the week, or time for meals or rest periods during the workday.

The first prohibitory legislation for women dates from 1872, Illinois in that year forbidding women to enter any mine to work therein. Today 28 states have regulated or prohibited women's employment in some industry or occupation. The most commonly prohibited occupation is mining. Such a prohibition exists in 18 states. In five states women are not allowed to carry or lift heavy weights. In five states regulations regarding the work of women in core rooms of foundries have been established—the special aim of such legislation being to protect women from the heat, fumes, smoke, and gases of the melting and baking rooms. In four states women are not allowed to clean moving machinery. Six states have legislation prohibiting their employment immediately before or after childbirth.

Seating was the next subject to be covered by law for women workers. To New York goes the credit for the first law, passed in 1881, requiring seats for women "in any mercantile or manufacturing business or occupation." An influx of seating laws followed, 16 states enacting similar legislation before 1890. Today 46 states—all but New Mexico, Mississippi, and the District of Columbia—have seating laws requiring the provision of chairs or stools for the use of women employed in stores or factories or both.

Home work legislation can be said to date from 1883, when New York sought to end the sweating or tenement workshop system by prohibiting the manufacture of cigars and other tobacco products in tenement houses. That law was declared unconstitutional, and for the next 30 years nearly all effort was directed toward regulation and the imposing of minor restrictions through a licensing system. At the present time about one-fourth of the states have laws either prohibiting or regulating home work. In general the regulatory requirements are for cleanliness, adequate lighting and ventilation, and freedom from infectious and contagious disease. *See* HOME WORK IN INDUSTRY.

Massachusetts passed the first night work prohibitory law for all women in 1890. At present only one-third of the states have legislation of this type. *See* NIGHT WORK IN INDUSTRY. Massachusetts in 1912 was also the first state to pass a minimum wage law for women and minors, and by 1923, 15 states and the District of Columbia had enacted laws having that purpose. All such legislation was dealt a staggering blow in 1923 when the United States Supreme Court declared the District of Columbia law unconstitutional. *See* MINIMUM WAGE.

The Federal Women's Bureau. An important step making for the improvement of working conditions for women was taken by the federal government in July, 1918, when the Woman in Industry Service was inaugurated in the United States Department of Labor as a temporary war agency to study the interests of wage-earning women and to make their services most effective for the national good. In June, 1920, this agency was made a permanent organization to be known as the Women's Bureau, whose function was to formulate standards and policies for wage-earning women, to promote their welfare, increase their efficiency, to improve their working conditions, and to advance their employment opportunities.

The principal standards advocated by the Bureau may be outlined briefly as follows: (1) Real opportunity for employment and advancement; adequate wage, based on occupation and not on sex; time for recreation, self-development, and leisure; a work day of not more than eight hours, including rest periods; not less than one and one-half days off each week; no night work; no industrial

home work; (2) a clean, well-aired, well-lighted workroom, with adequate provision against excessive heat and cold; a chair for each woman, built on posture lines adjusted to both worker and job, and the elimination of constant standing or sitting wherever possible; (3) guarded machinery and other safety precautions; mechanical devices to prevent unnecessary and repeated lifting of heavy weights and other motions abnormally fatiguing to women; protection against industrial poisons used in manufacturing processes when such poisons are detrimental to women's health; and prohibition of women's employment only in industries definitely proved by scientific investigation to be more injurious to women than to men; (4) adequate and sanitary service facilities, including enough time for lunch and a clean, comfortable place in which to eat it; pure and accessible drinking water, with individual cups or sanitary fountains; convenient washing facilities, with hot and cold water, soap, and individual towels; standard toilet facilities; dressing and rest rooms; and first-aid equipment.

The Women's Bureau is not charged with the administration of any labor legislation, that function being reserved for the states. It has made and published a large number of studies of conditions affecting women's labor, and it has recently included among its activities a special investigation, referred to in the next following section, as to the effect of labor legislation on the employment opportunities of women, the request for such a study having grown out of controversy.

The Effects of Special Labor Legislation. With the growth and development of special labor laws resulting from the efforts of groups convinced of their value and efficacy in promoting the interests of women workers there has gradually arisen also an opposition to these laws on the part of other groups who have come to view them as a handicap to women's occupational progress. The proponents for special labor legislation for women argue as follows: Men and women in industry do not have equal economic power in bargaining for better standards of hours, conditions, and remunerations. Forced into industrial life by increasing economic pressure, women are the late-comers in industry, and as such are in the position of being the cheapest labor in the market, thus tending to undercut the wages and conditions that have been gained by men in their longer industrial life. The fact is commonly recognized that men have gained their advantages in the industrial world largely by means of organization, and have preferred this method rather than that of employing the machinery of the state. In theory this method would appear to be desirable for women also, but a closer study of the problem reveals several factors tending to prevent successful and extensive organization of women. Women are the natural home-makers and mothers of the race, and their entrance into industry has not removed or lightened that already heavy responsibility; rather it has only added another job to the one that women have held since the beginning of the race. Therefore women who are wage-earners, with one job in the factory and another in the home, have little time and energy left to carry on a fight to better their economic status.

Entering industry by the easiest and most widely opened door, that of the job requiring little or no skill, women workers too often land at the bottom of the economic scale. They cannot improve their conditions because in so many instances they are not organized, and often cannot organize because their need of employment is so great that they dare not risk the loss of their jobs no matter how poor—a loss that too often follows the unskilled workers' first attempts at organization. Moreover, women, especially those under 20 years of age who may expect to marry and leave industry, have not realized the need and value of organization as much as have men. Important as it is to safeguard men's industrial employment, it is even more essential to safeguard women's in the interest of the race. In view of these facts a definite de-

mand has developed for a method to produce scientifically and as soon as possible conditions and opportunities that more nearly equal those of men. This short-cut is legislation. Applied to women in industry and not to those in the professions, it cannot be said to hamper women in opportunities for a career.

The source and grounds of opposition to special legislation for women in industry are as follows: Certain feminist organizations, headed by the National Woman's Party and representing not the rank and file of women in industry but professional women and members of a few highly skilled and well-organized trades, oppose such legislation on the ground that it handicaps women in securing and retaining employment. Women have even lost jobs in a number of cases because of it. Absolute equality of the sexes in all conditions and relations of life is right and desirable, and special labor laws for women prevent such equality. Women's freedom to enter upon jobs is restricted by special laws, particularly night-work legislation. All legal regulations should apply alike to men and women. Women when classed apart from men or included with minors in the matter of labor laws are less likely to achieve occupational progress. To this feminist group of opponents may be added the National Association of Manufacturers, which stated in its Platform of American Industry for 1928 that "protective legislation should be based only upon individual capacity and the nature of the work rather than upon sex." Along with these groups may also be counted ultra-conservative employers, opposed on principle to any change in the established order of the things and unscrupulous employers to whom the unprotected status of women industrial workers offers a chance for exploitation.

This whole question of special labor legislation was brought to the fore at the Women's Industrial Conference called by the United States Women's Bureau, January 18 to 21, 1926. After a special evening session had been devoted exclusively to the subject, the opposition urged that the Women's Bureau undertake a special investigation of the problem. That proposal was accepted, all members of the conference believing that facts should be obtained. As one means of securing objectivity in procedure, two committees were appointed. One of these, a committee to give technical advice, was composed of persons having experience in carrying forward industrial investigation. The second committee was made up of representatives of organizations advocating special legislation for women and representatives of the National Woman's Party opposing it. This second committee proved unsuccessful, in that those opposed to special labor laws urged that the investigation be conducted from the beginning mainly through public hearings, whereas the advocates of the laws, the majority of whom were themselves women in industry and representatives of organizations of women in industry, were opposed to public hearings on the ground that testimony given on such occasions by working women might jeopardize their positions and could not be relied upon to bring out all facts. When the opponents of special legislation induced their supporters in the states to write letters to Congressmen designed to discredit the investigation before it was begun and to bring charges of prejudice and unfair dealings against the Women's Bureau, the advocates of such legislation withdrew from the committee, holding that it was not fulfilling its proper function and that no useful purpose could be served by the agitation resulting from this disagreement in the preliminary planning of the study. The committee was automatically dissolved.

The investigation was nevertheless carried through by the Women's Bureau. The field work, begun in March, 1926, and completed in December, was conducted in many different sections of the country. The scope of the study was very extensive. It included a careful and detailed study of labor laws applying to women in 11 states covering more than 660,000 workers, 165,244 of them

women. Among the industries included were the major woman-employing occupations: boots and shoes, clothing, electrical apparatus, knit goods, and paper boxes. More than 1,600 establishments were visited by Bureau agents, 1,200 women being personally interviewed. In addition, women workers in stores, restaurants, newspaper offices, street-railway transportation, elevator operating, pharmacies, the metal trades, and certain other types of employment were studied. Particular attention was given to the effect of laws prohibiting night work and those barring women from certain specific occupations, such as grinding, polishing, buffing, acetylene and electric welding, taxicab driving, and gas and electric meter reading.

The general conclusion of the survey was that women are necessary to industry, and that when the laws are properly and carefully written women are not barred from industrial work nor do they lose their jobs because of the laws, but in practically every case are benefited by them. Moreover, reasonable legal standards for their employment raise standards in industry for all workers. The great majority of up-to-date employers, the Bureau has ascertained, realize the value of such standards of work and often exceed them in their own plants. Many of them approve such legislation because it largely does away with the cheap, unfair competition of unscrupulous employers.

Developments and Events, 1929. Legislation in this field during the year is covered under the titles referred to earlier in this article. Studies in progress during the year are also covered under those titles in so far as they relate to particular types of labor legislation for women. Among the studies of a more general character undertaken by the Women's Bureau are the following: (a) A study of labor laws for women in the United States, to keep current the information contained in Women's Bureau Bulletin No. 66, Part 2, *Chronological Development of Labor Legislation for Women in the United States,* and for a new edition of Bulletin No. 63, *State Laws Affecting Working Women;* (b) a study of laws in the United States on sanitation in work places, including laws and regulations as to toilet facilities and drinking facilities; and (c) a study and analysis of data published by 21 states on industrial accidents to women, 1920–1927.

CONSULT: Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Proceedings of the Women's Industrial Conference* (No. 33), 1923, *State Laws Affecting Working Women* (No. 63), 1927, *Proceedings of Women's Industrial Conference in January,* 1926 (mimeographed), *The Effects of Labor Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women* (Summary of this is published as No. 68), 1929, and *History of Labor Legislation for Women in Three States* and *Chronological Development of Labor Legislation for Women in the United States* (No. 66), 1929; Andrews and Commons: *Principles of Labor Legislation* (revised), 1927; and National Consumers' League: *Equal Opportunity for Women Wage Earners, Facts vs. Fiction,* 1920. For literature opposed to special labor legislation for women consult issues of *Equal Rights* (National Woman's Party), particularly "Woman's Party Enters Presidential Campaign," September 22, 1928, and "The Joiner Bill Fails," May 2, 1925.

MARY ANDERSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 588.

LABOR, ORGANIZED. *See* ORGANIZED LABOR.

LABOR, STATE AGENCIES. With the exception of public welfare activities no state functions are as directly connected with social work as those performed by state agencies in the field of labor. Unlike the other state agencies for which articles appear in this volume—relating to public welfare, public health, and education—state labor agencies rarely share their fields with local public agencies.

This article relates to all state agencies which deal with labor or industrial problems, whatever names they bear—departments or

bureaus of labor, industries, or mines; industrial commissions; compensation boards or commissions; boards of arbitration or conciliation; or state employment services. In the leading industrial states, state functions relating to labor are usually united in a single agency, ordinarily called the Department of Labor. Some states, however, have four, five, or six independent and uncoordinated labor agencies. These variations are well shown in the *Monthly Labor Review* of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics for July, 1929; but neither in that nor in any other publication has an analysis been made of the widely varying forms of organization adopted in this field by the states of the country. In the following paragraphs, accordingly, attention is centered upon the major activities of state industrial or labor agencies and the administrative problems that are involved.

Recognition of the need for labor legislation preceded by some 50 years an understanding that without adequate enforcement labor laws have little practical value. Only gradually, and never as a popular conception, has come the idea that the methods of labor law administration are the real gauge of labor law standards in any community. There are many explanations for the lag of administrative measures behind other forms of labor legislation. At first there was the assumption that where labor laws were not obeyed, the injured workman would take his case to court to receive justice. That he might not have heard of the laws made for his protection, that he usually had no funds to use in legal action, that his grievance, though real, was not so serious as the loss of his job following a court case against his employer—these convincing reasons why the worker could not protect his own rights under the law were not fully grasped. Even organized labor in the early days met the situation by appeals for commissions of investigation rather than for law enforcement machinery.

Later, when administrative bodies had been created in the leading industrial states with power to enforce labor standards, many obstacles were encountered, particularly in the form of insufficient appropriations. Though these have increased greatly from year to year, they have never fully kept pace with the industrial development of the states. The theory that state administrative bodies can become practically self-supporting through fines where the laws are not observed, and by fees for special services, may in time receive wider attention. But the general practice has been an appeal for funds to each new legislature, the amount obtained being dependent usually on the strength of organized labor in the community.

The personnel of labor administrative bodies has often been of indifferent quality, and has slowly and in many states not even yet come under civil service requirements. Appointments have usually been based on political affiliations rather than on professional training. Even where civil service standards have been effective they have not always been high, and salaries have been so consistently low as rarely to attract persons with outstanding experience or training. Because positions of highest authority have always been appointive, continuity of policy is very rare, the labor department heads shifting with each political change. With a few exceptions, however, states with a large industrial population now have labor departments which carry on competent and valuable work. In these states the department functions, while varied in responsibility and scope, rather generally give consideration to the administrative problems discussed in the next following sections of this article.

Inspection. With the exception of farm labor and domestic work the employment conditions of all establishments employing more than a specified minimum number of persons—usually five or ten—come under the supervision of an inspection bureau. The inclusion of farm labor when conducted on a large commercial basis, though frequently advocated, has very rarely been adopted.

Also large commercial hotels have too often been kept without the jurisdiction of the labor authorities on the ground that they are "domestic dwellings." The inspection of mines is frequently carried on in a separate department of mines. Some agencies have tended to subdivide their work along industrial rather than geographical lines, and have developed specialists in the problems of employment in each major industry in place of general inspectors who must cover candy factories, rolling mills, department stores, and moving picture establishments, and so cannot offer real technical service to any of these places of business. A further form of specialization relates to particular problems within a given industry. The trained industrial engineer who can work out the guarding of an intricate machine to insure both the safety of the operator and the maintenance of production is very likely to have no interest in the length of noon hour permitted to women employes, or the filing of certificates for minors under 16 years of age. Also, while the rearrangement of machinery calling for the expert advice of the factory inspector occurs when the plant work is slack, the greatest need for inspection as to the hours of work for women and children is when the plant is running full speed. A distinction is therefore often made between inspection work which has to do with equipment and that which concerns the workers. Regulation of the latter relates chiefly to the age of children and type of their work, or to the hours of work of women and children. Inspection for such purpose, when handled separately, has usually been delegated to a division of women and children.

Compensation. The requirement that every industrial establishment carry insurance to guarantee compensation to workers injured in the course of their employment has added greatly to the duties and responsibilities of state labor departments. In many states it has meant the establishment of a state insurance company, either competing with other such companies for the business of employers, or having a monopoly of this form of insurance.

Accident cases arising under compensation laws are frequently settled through the insurance companies, state or private, with hearings (before the compensation commissioners, or their representatives) only on cases where there is disagreement. In some states, however, every case comes up for hearing on the theory that otherwise the employe may not know of his rights. The only disadvantage of this latter precautionary method is the amount of time involved and the danger of filling the compensation calendar with minor cases at the delay of more serious cases. *See* Industrial Accidents. In most states compensation laws are administered by commissions, either connected with state labor departments or independent of them. In a half-dozen states, however, no administrative agency is specially provided, all cases being handled by courts. For obvious reasons—principally those to be referred to presently under the heading of "Industrial Codes and Standards"—the latter method of administration has not proved adequate in dealing with the complicated problems which arise.

Rehabilitation. In the majority of states there has been a recognition of the states' responsibility for the retraining of workmen injured in industry. In some states such work is assigned to the department of education on the theory that the main emphasis is the educational process. *See* Education, State Agencies. In other states responsibility is placed in the hands of the labor department in the belief that the needed retraining must be made with a knowledge of the industrial opportunities of the community in which the injured workman lives. Under both arrangements effective work has been successfully carried on. An important impetus to its development has been the fact that federal funds have been available to match whatever money each state spends. *See* Rehabilitation.

Employment. Since the end of the World War federal funds have contributed little to state employment services. In 1929, 25 states reported that they were operating employment offices in 142 cities. In losing in great part their federal leadership, the state employment bureaus have not on the whole maintained a very high standard of service. While the task of getting jobs for unskilled workers has been carried on by the states with reasonable adequacy, less competency has been demonstrated in the placement of skilled workers. Nor has there been in many states a sufficient development of juvenile placement agencies. The administrative question as to whether the juvenile placement should be under the control of the schools, since the children must be certificated for work by school authorities, or under the labor department, since the opportunities in the various industries are best known to the labor authorities, like the question of administration of the rehabilitation work is largely dependent upon the training and experience of the administrators. Both methods have proved successful, and both have proved ineffective when the staff was untrained. *See* Employment Agencies and Vocational Guidance.

Arbitration and Mediation. The state's responsibility as a mediator in times of industrial disputes between capital and labor is pretty generally recognized. State labor departments have no mandatory powers in this matter. They merely offer their services, and as they build up a reputation for fairness the demand for their help increases.

Statistics. Appreciation of the need for official information as to the number of persons employed in the various industries, and of the conditions under which they work, preceded recognition of the importance of factory inspection. The first step toward the building up of labor departments in the United States came with the establishment of fact-finding bureaus or commissions. For the past quarter of a century the most valuable published information on trends of employment has come from state bureaus of labor statistics.

Industrial Hygiene. With the development of modern industry there has been a growing recognition of the special hazards to workers arising from the use of poisonous materials. Many state labor agencies carry on research to determine the dangers to health incident to certain processes of work. Such technical bureaus are still in the experimental stage, but they have made studies of great value. *See* Occupational Diseases.

Employment of Women and Children. The World War focused attention upon the conditions under which women and children were employed. In some states the desirability was recognized of having a separate bureau to study the protective measures required for these employes. Many of the publications of bureaus thus established rank high in the field of industrial research.

Industrial Codes and Standards. The greatest handicap in the development in the United States of effective labor legislation has been the concept that each detail of labor legislation must be passed upon by the legislature. Law makers have thus been required to render decisions on technical matters concerning which they could not be expected to have adequate information, and as a result industries have been burdened with antiquated regulations which have not kept pace with the current changes in manufacturing processes. To meet this difficulty some labor departments are now allowed, within specified limits, to form their own regulations to insure a standard of "safety and welfare," these having the force of law save when through court action they have been declared illegal. Regulations are usually drawn up by a Bureau of Codes or Standards, and finally adopted by an Industrial Board or Commission. In states where such bureaus have functioned for a decade or longer, and with the advice and the cooperation of employers and employes, a mass of valuable rules has been built up which offer

the maximum of safety to the worker with no unnecessary burden to industry.

The development of state labor departments has been very much stimulated by the federal Department of Labor, which has given publicity to the more effective administrative measures developed in particular states and has worked toward the standardizing, by leveling up, of administrative practices. In line with that policy was the publication, in 1928, by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, of a series of articles on the New York State Labor Department—*Activities and Functions of a State Labor Department* (Bulletin Number 479). In the foreword to this bulletin the Commissioner of the Bureau lists the following states as having labor bureaus, commissions, or departments which are doing work "as good as their opportunities will permit": Arizona, Arkansas, California, Colorado, Connecticut, Delaware, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Kansas, Kentucky, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Minnesota, Mississippi, Montana, Nebraska, Nevada, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, North Dakota, Ohio, Oklahoma, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, South Carolina, South Dakota, Tennessee, Texas, Utah, Vermont, Virginia, Washington, West Virginia, Wisconsin, and Wyoming.

The officials of state labor agencies in the United States and Canada meet in the annual conventions of three different associations—the Association of Governmental Labor Officials in Industry of the United States and Canada, the National Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions, and the International Association of Public Employment Services. The federal Department of Labor publishes the proceedings of all these conventions. The American Statistical Association has a Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics, which rendered a report at the annual meeting of that association in 1929. (*Journal of the American Statistical Association*, Supplement, March, 1930.)

During 1929 two important studies affecting state labor departments were in progress. The first is being conducted by John R. Commons and his associates at the University of Wisconsin and covers the development of labor legislation in the United States. Consideration will be given to the development of labor law administration. The second study is under the direction of John B. Andrews, of the American Association of Labor Legislation, and relates to the existing standards of labor law administration.

Legislation, 1929. Administrative gains through legislation in each state are summarized yearly in the *American Labor Legislation Review.* During 1929 laws affecting labor law administration were passed in 27 states. Salary increases for inspectors or other labor officials were granted in 11 states, and general department appropriations increased in 15 states. Higher qualifications for labor inspectors were established in three states—Oregon, Texas, and Wisconsin. The welfare of children in industry was affected by increased appropriations for the Children's Bureau in Delaware; and, most outstandingly, perhaps, by the establishment of a Bureau of Women and Children in New Jersey.

CONSULT: Reports of the State Labor Departments of the leading industrial states; reports of the United States Department of Labor, in particular issues of its *Monthly Labor Bulletins* and publications of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, Women's Bureau, and Children's Bureau; also issues of the *American Labor Legislation Review* (American Association of Labor Legislation); and the articles and the as yet unpublished studies previously mentioned in this text.

CHARLOTTE E. CARR

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

LABOR STATISTICS, STATE BUREAUS OF. *See* LABOR, STATE AGENCIES.

LABOR TURNOVER. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT.

LABOR UNIONS. *See* ORGANIZED LABOR.

LATTER DAY SAINTS, SOCIAL WORK BY THE CHURCH OF. *See* MORMON SOCIAL WORK.

LEGAL AID is a means through which those who need legal assistance are helped to overcome the obstacles met in their efforts to obtain justice—court costs, delays in court procedure, and the expense of counsel. Legal aid is preventive to the extent that by assisting the law to function it makes application to relief agencies unnecessary. Legal aid also, through its use in the field training of law students, gives future lawyers something of a social viewpoint as to their responsibility in the administration of justice. For schools of social work legal aid furnishes a means whereby students may learn how to meet the legal problems which the clients of social agencies frequently face. Legal aid organizations ordinarily handle only civil cases. In a few cities, however, such societies have voluntary defender committees which give aid in criminal cases. When such services are rendered under public auspices the officials are known as "public defenders."

History and Present Status. Organized legal aid of the type here described began in 1876 in New York City when the German Society established a committee, and later a society, for the benefit of German immigrants. Close relations have always existed between the bar and the legal aid movement. Usually the bar in any city has been the determining factor in the establishment of its legal aid work. The National Alliance of Legal Aid Societies was organized in 1912; in 1923 its name was changed to the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations. The fact that legal machinery is organized by states, and that many legal problems are peculiar to the state in which they arise, has resulted in the establishment of statewide organizations. The first was organized in Pennsylvania in 1927, and others now exist in Massachusetts, New York, Ohio, and on the Pacific coast. There are local societies at present in 43 cities in the United States in 22 different states. Each year approximately 170,000 cases are handled by these societies, approximately $750,000 is recovered for clients in amounts averaging less than $15 a case, and approximately $500,000 expended for operation expenses. Fees are collected by some societies in small sums, amounting for all societies together to about 10 per cent of the gross cost of operation.

In family welfare work legal aid is called upon most frequently in cases involving wage claims, workmen's compensation, nonsupport, and alimony. In the *Study of Legal Aid Work in New York City*, made in 1927 by the Bar Association and the Welfare Council, certain of the recommendations related to the importance of closer cooperation between legal aid societies and the other social agencies of the city. Close relationship exists between the workmen's compensation commissions of the country and the united legal aid societies. The national agencies representing both groups have cooperating committees. The Boston, Chicago, and New York societies have developed specialized service in this field, advising clients as to their rights, negotiating settlements where possible, and defending cases before commissions or on appeal. Many cases are referred by commissions to the societies for adjustment. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

A type of legal aid service for which special machinery has been set up is that needed to protect poor persons accused of crime. The agencies for such service are styled voluntary or public defenders according as they are maintained from public or private funds. Voluntary defenders exist now in New York City, Rochester, Chicago, and Cincinnati; steps toward their establishment are being taken in Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, and Pittsburgh. Public defenders originated at Los Angeles in 1914. There are now such officials in several cities in California and Connecticut, also in Minne-

apolis, Dallas, Omaha, and Memphis. Their work consists in seeing that poor people accused of crime have a fair trial. Fundamentally this is legal aid work in the criminal courts, and is so regarded by those who participate in it. A committee, therefore, of the National Association is actively engaged in furthering it. In conjunction with that committee the Institute for the Study of Law at Johns Hopkins University is considering a nation-wide study of the subject.

The staffs of most legal aid societies consist of lawyers, clerks, and stenographers. In a few societies persons trained in social case work, or in some other field of social work, are employed as executives or assistants. This is so in the Legal Aid Department of the Jewish Social Service Bureau of Chicago, and also in legal aid organizations in Grand Rapids, Minneapolis, Chicago, and St. Paul. Investigators who have been trained only in legal aid societies are employed in the same capacities in Milwaukee, Philadelphia, and New York City.

The legal aid clinic is a somewhat recent development in which law students are given training in legal aid societies. They thus obtain a social point of view toward the practice of law which enables them to bridge the gap between theoretical law school courses and actual practice. Such clinics are now operated at the Harvard, Northwestern, Minnesota, Cincinnati, and Southern California law schools. Courses in some phases of law are given in practically all schools of social work. General courses in which law is compared and contrasted with social work have been given in the Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work and at the Graduate School of Social Service Administration at Chicago University. Courses by legal aid attorneys have been given in Simmons College and elsewhere. *Law and Social Work*, published in 1929, was prepared for use as a textbook in such courses.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year new legal aid societies were organized in Oakland and Los Angeles, Calif. Voluntary defender committees or agencies were established, or were in the process of establishment, in Philadelphia, Boston, St. Louis, and Pittsburgh. During the year also the Joint Committee of the Family Welfare Association of America and the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations met to discuss relations between legal aid and family welfare work.

CONSULT: National Alliance of Legal Aid Societies: *Proceedings of Conventions*, 1911, 1912, 1916, and 1922 (out of print); National Association of Legal Aid Organizations: *Proceedings of Annual Conventions*, 1923 to 1929 inclusive, and *Reports of Committees*, 1924 to 1929 inclusive; Smith, Reginald H.: *Justice and the Poor*, 1924; Smith and Bradway: *The Growth of Legal Aid Work*, 1926; Maguire, John M.: *The Lance of Justice*, 1928; and Bradway, John S.: *Law and Social Work*, 1929; and special issues of the *Annals of the American Academy*, entitled "Legal Aid Work," March, 1926, "Progress in the Law," March, 1928, and "Law and Social Welfare," September, 1929.

JOHN S. BRADWAY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

LEGAL RESIDENCE. *See* TRANSPORTATION OF CLIENTS.

LIBRARIES OF SOCIAL WORK vary from highly specialized collections to more general ones which cover all fields of social work. Conspicuous in the first group is the National Health Library, established in 1921 at 370 Seventh Ave., New York City. The collection includes 6,000 books and 25,000 pamphlets; approximately 600 periodicals are received regularly. The library's primary purpose is to serve the five national public health organizations which support it, but reference privileges are extended to social workers and others interested in the field of public health. Since March 1, 1930, a membership fee of $2.00 a year has been charged for users of the library who are

not members of the supporting organizations.

The library of the Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, another specialized library, was established in January, 1922. The collection contains about 10,000 books and pamphlets in the field of child welfare, and about 100 periodicals are received regularly. Material is loaned without charge to workers throughout the country on payment of transportation charges. Bibliographies and reading lists on child welfare topics are prepared on request.

The United States Department of Labor Library was established in 1885. It serves primarily the bureaus and officers of that department, but it is open to the public for reference. It contains more than 95,000 volumes, and has a large collection of pamphlet material of interest to social workers. The Library of the Industrial Relations Section in the Department of Economics and Social Institutions of Princeton University, and the Library of the Department of Social Ethics at Harvard University are important separate units of large collections.

Among general social service libraries, the most notable are the Social Service Library in Boston and the Library of the Russell Sage Foundation in New York City. The former, established in 1912, is connected with Simmons College and exists primarily for the use of students of the School of Social Work. It is, however, open to the public for reference purposes. The collection includes 80,567 books, pamphlets, reports, and periodicals.

The Russell Sage Foundation Library, an outgrowth of the library started in 1882 by the Charity Organization Society of New York, consists of 29,382 bound volumes and 102,467 pamphlets, reports, and so forth, in paper covers. It is probably the largest general library in the country in the field of social work. It serves as the library of the New York School of Social Work and is open to social workers and all others interested in social subjects.

A few of the schools of social work maintain their own libraries, but most of them depend upon those of the colleges and universities with which they are connected. The federal government and all but 12 states maintain legislative reference bureaus or libraries, whose collections in many cases are of importance to social workers in fields which involve legislation.

The increasing interest of librarians in the field of social work was indicated during the year 1929 by the action of the national Special Libraries Association in organizing a civic-social group in its membership.

BERTHA F. HULSEMAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22.

LIFE-ADVISEMENT. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

LITTLE THEATRES. *See* THE THEATRE.

LIVING WAGE. *See* MINIMUM WAGE.

LOAN SHARKS. *See* SMALL LOANS.

LODGING HOUSES. *See* HOMELESS PERSONS.

LUNACY. *See* MENTAL DISEASES.

LUNCHEON CLUBS. *See* BUSINESS MEN'S SERVICE CLUBS.

MALNUTRITION. *See* NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN.

MARRIAGE LAWS. Because of the vital connection of family life with the institution of marriage, social case workers in recent years have taken an active interest in the subject of marriage laws. The agencies thus interested belong to several groups—family welfare societies, children's societies, clergymen, women's organizations, and in a few cases, judges and other public officials having administrative responsibility in connection with marriage or divorce laws.

History and Present Status. In 1911 and 1912 the Commissioners on Uniform State

Laws issued reports containing a model marriage license act and a model marriage evasion act. The former has been adopted in its entirety only in Massachusetts and Wisconsin, but portions of it have been included in the laws of many states. In 1918 the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation began a study of marriage laws and their administration, the results of which were published in several volumes, listed at the end of this article. These books have had a marked influence on the situation. A committee of the Family Welfare Association of America and local marriage law committees in 12 states were formed, and new laws secured through their campaigns in at least seven of these states. The League of Women Voters lent active support to the state-by-state attack on the problem. The General Federation of Women's Clubs has pursued the policy of working for a federal statute rather than for uniformity in state laws. With the cooperation of the *Pictorial Review* the Federation secured the introduction in Congress, in 1923, of the so-called "Capper Amendment" to permit such national legislation. Its proposed bill (which was not acted upon since the amendment failed of passage) was based on that drafted by the Commissioners on Uniform State Laws, and included provisions for the federal regulation of divorce. The amendment and bill were reintroduced in 1925, 1927, and 1928, but have never been passed. The Woman's Party, in its campaign for legal equality between the sexes, has also sponsored state bills relating to age for marriage, with or without parental consent.

The main efforts in state campaigns have been (a) to prevent child marriage and safeguard youthful marriage; (b) to introduce a period of delay between the application for a marriage license and its issuance (the so-called "advance notice" or "hasty marriage" bills); (c) to prevent the marriage of the physically and mentally unfit (the so-called "eugenics," "venereal disease," or "medical certification" bills); and (d) to invalidate common-law marriage. The success of these efforts has been about in the order mentioned. Child marriage bills are passed with the least difficulty; but legislative prejudice and fear of interfering with individual liberty become aroused over advance notice and eugenics bills, and the common-law marital relation seems exceedingly difficult to dislodge from the states which still permit it.

Legislation, 1929. Laws raising the marriageable ages or otherwise safeguarding the marriages of boys and girls were passed during the year in California (Ch. 607), Maine (Ch. 268), New York (Ch. 633), and Vermont (No. 51). A feature of all these laws is that they demand the consent of a juvenile court or other higher court judge, in addition to the consent of parents or guardians, for certain under-age marriages. To assist in enforcement an unique provision had been added to the New York law in 1927 by which license issuers are directed to demand specified documentary proofs of age from all applicants who appear to them to be under 21 years of age. No child marriage bills failed of passage in 1929.

A five-day advance notice law was passed in North Carolina (Ch. 161) applying only to persons under 21, a three-day law in Texas (Ch. 114), and a five-day law in Tennessee (Ch. 6). The last named provides also that the applications shall be open to the public, and that any interested party may contest the issuance of the license and demand a ruling by a judge of a superior court, the contestant furnishing a cost bond. Furthermore, the license issuer must send notice of the application to the parents or guardians of the girl. Connecticut (Ch. 147) amended its law to make applications for license public during the advance notice period. In six other states bills of this type were defeated, as was also a vigorous attempt made in California to repeal its three-day notice law.

Texas (Ch. 114) passed a law demanding that a medical certificate of freedom from

communicable disease be presented by each male applicant for a marriage license, and bills of the eugenics type were defeated in six other states. Oregon repealed a law passed in 1927 which had validated certain common-law marriages entered into prior to 1925. In addition to the foregoing, laws were passed in many states affecting minor points.

CONSULT: Commissioners on Uniform State Laws: *Marriage License Act*, 1911, and *Marriage Evasion Act*, 1912; Koegel, Otto: *Common Law Marriage*, 1922; Richmond and Hall: *Child Marriages*, 1925; Hall, Fred S.: *Medical Certification for Marriage*, 1925; Women's Protective Association of Cleveland: *School Girl Brides*, 1926; Children's Aid Society of Buffalo: *Child Marriages in Erie County*, 1927; Richmond and Hall: *Marriage and the State*, 1929; May, Geoffrey: *Marriage Laws and Decisions*, 1929; Women's City Club: *Child Marriages in New York City*, 1929; and Popenoe, Paul: "Some Effects of a State Law Requiring Delay before a Marriage License is Issued," in *Journal of Social Hygiene*, November, 1929.

JOANNA C. COLCORD

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE. The purpose of organized activities in the field of maternal and infant hygiene is primarily to reduce the death rates of mothers and babies. The chief emphasis of the present day is laid upon the conservation of health and the inculcation of habits and attitudes which promote this end. No one knew positively how great was the need for work of this nature in the United States until the federal Bureau of the Census began to collect and publish statistics of both births and deaths. The first Census Bureau report on birth statistics, published in 1915, included data from 10 states and the District of Columbia only. *See* VITAL STATISTICS. That report gave the first basis for comparison of infant births and deaths. It showed that for every 1,000 live births 100 babies were dying under one year of age. Comparison of this rate with that of 18 foreign countries showed that six countries had a lower infant mortality rate than the United States. New Zealand, for instance, was losing only half as many babies—50 per 1,000 live births—as was the United States, while Norway was losing only 68, and Sweden, 76.

Even more startling in comparison with rates from foreign countries were the figures on maternal mortality. Twelve of the 14 foreign countries for which statistics were available for 1915 had rates lower than the United States. In this country 61 mothers were dying for every 10,000 live births. Only one country, Chile, had a higher rate, 66; Scotland had the same rate, 61, and five countries were losing fewer than 30 mothers for every 10,000 live births, or less than one-half as many as in the United States.

Early field studies and analyses of statistics indicated that better preservation of the lives of both mothers and babies depended upon an extension of prenatal care as well as upon improvement in care at time of delivery. Surveys showed that many births were attended by untrained, unskilled, and none-too-clean midwives. Many other mothers had no trained attendants at childbirth and did not understand the desirability of placing themselves in the hands of a physician for health supervision during the period of pregnancy. These conditions were reflected in the number of maternal deaths and also in the neonatal death rate, the highest point of the latter occurring in the first month of life and being due largely to prenatal conditions or conditions at time of delivery. The second most important cause of infant mortality was the gastro-intestinal diseases, in which contributing factors are poor milk and water supply, unhygienic surroundings, and improper feeding. Corrective measures included improving milk and water supplies and getting information to the mother on the routine care of the baby and the importance of breast feeding. Information on the preparation of simple formulas of cow's milk, to be used only if

maternal milk was not available, was included in the plans to assist mothers to save their babies. Other items on the care of the baby, diet, habit training, hygiene, and prevention of infectious diseases were added later to the information disseminated.

History and Present Status. The development of organized efforts to improve infant hygiene began in this country near the end of the nineteenth century with measures for improvement of milk and water supplies, such as the establishment by private agencies of milk stations for the distribution of clean, safe, or modified milk at a nominal cost for infant feeding, and the passage of city ordinances controlling the production, care, and distribution of milk. The first milk station in the United States was established in New York City in 1893, and by 1910 similar stations were known to exist in 30 different cities. From milk dispensaries these stations have changed to preventive health centers, the emphasis being now placed almost entirely on educational work to keep the well baby well through competent medical supervision. Many have been absorbed by official agencies and their support assumed by local communities. No complete data are available for 1929 as to the number of such health centers for infants. In the survey of 86 cities made by the American Child Health Association in 1924, 70 cities were found to have such centers, now usually called "infant welfare clinics." Only 52 of the cities reported giving attention to preschool children; 49 cities reported that the infant and preschool clinics were inseparable. Hawaii and the states cooperating under the Sheppard-Towner Act—presently to be discussed—reported the establishment of 2,667 permanent centers and the conducting of 124,637 child health conferences during the five years ending in 1929.

A little later than the establishment of milk stations and infant welfare centers came the first organized effort to have women receive prenatal care. This seems to have been begun in New York in 1908 by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor and the Pediatric Department of the New York Outdoor Medical Clinic. In 1909 the Women's Municipal League of Boston made an experiment covering a period of five years, during which prenatal nursing care was given to women in their homes in Boston, and 1,512 women were carried safely through confinement. The result reported was: "That prenatal care given by a nurse visiting in the home at intervals of not over ten days has demonstrated its efficiency in relieving suffering and preventing danger and disease in the mother and rendering maternal nursing more successful, thereby reducing infant mortality."

The Maternity Center Association of New York City was established in April, 1918, as the result of a survey made by a committee appointed by the commissioner of health in New York City in 1915. The city was districted, and a maternity center was located in each district to provide information, to coordinate and stimulate agencies to conduct clinics, and to refer patients for hospital care. The first center was financed by the Women's City Club. The Association prepared standards of prenatal nursing which are widely accepted, secured the cooperation and coordination of organizations promoting prenatal care, and developed other centers. It became a center for training in prenatal and maternity care for nurses from all parts of the United States and from foreign countries.

In 1925 a committee representing the American Association of Obstetricians and Gynecologists, the American Gynecological Society, and the American Child Health Association was organized, under the name of the Committee for Maternal Welfare. Its purpose is nation-wide propaganda for better obstetrics, for more definite prenatal care, and for rigid asepsis.

No definite information is available on the number of prenatal clinics and centers in existence or the number of expectant mothers

under their care. A survey made in 100 cities by the United States Public Health Service in 1923 showed prenatal clinics conducted in 73 of these cities. A survey of 86 cities made in 1924 by the American Child Health Association showed 40 cities with prenatal clinics. According to reports from the cooperating states and Hawaii, 684 centers were organized under the Sheppard-Towner Act from 1924 to 1929, and 37,432 prenatal conferences were conducted.

Of special significance in promoting these activities and other similar undertakings was the influence of the American Association for the Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, an agency which was organized in 1909, and in 1923 united with the Child Health organization to become the American Child Health Association. The aims of the original group were to stress the registration of births and deaths, to promote means of instructing mothers and expectant mothers in the principles of maternal and infant hygiene, and to establish standards for milk to be sold under specified labels. In its present form the association continues to cooperate with official health agencies in campaigns for improvement of the milk supply, conducts research, and studies ways to develop new standards of health protection for children.

Most of the private agencies thus far described have confined their efforts for the most part to the cities. With the establishment of the federal Children's Bureau in 1912 came the first large-scale extension of service to mothers and babies in rural communities. In 1916 the Bureau conducted investigations in selected areas of Kansas, North Carolina, and Wisconsin which furnished a basis for health programs for the rural child. In 1918 a Children's Year Campaign was inaugurated by the United States Children's Bureau and the Women's Division of the Council of National Defense. The program of the campaign included, among other aims, the promotion of public protection of maternity and infancy.

Increasing interest in the health of the child—particularly of the rural child—resulted, in 1921, in the passage of the federal Act for the Promotion of the Welfare and Hygiene of Maternity and Infancy, known as the Sheppard-Towner Act (42 Stat. L. 224). An annual appropriation of $1,240,000 was authorized for five years. This, with the exception of $50,000 available to the Children's Bureau for administering the provisions of the act, was to be divided among the states accepting the provisions of the act through their legislative authority. The benefits of the act were extended to Hawaii in 1924 (43 Stat. L. 17). An act of 1927 (44 Stat. L. 1024) extended the authorized appropriations for two years and provided that after June 30, 1929, the original act should be "of no force and effect." The act provided that in any cooperating state having a child hygiene or a child welfare division in the state agency of health, this division should have charge of the local administration. For other states the designation or creation of an administering agency was authorized. Before the introduction of the Sheppard-Towner bill in Congress, 12 states had established child hygiene divisions or bureaus. While the bill was pending 25 additional states created such bureaus or divisions. Ten states and Hawaii created such agencies after the passage of the act. One state did not create a special agency, but administered the act directly through its state department of health. At the expiration of the act 45 states and Hawaii were cooperating under it. The plans in the various states differed in details, but the general aim was educational, with a special effort to reach rural mothers and babies. The types of work included instruction as to the care of mother and child given to individual parents at itinerant conferences or at permanent centers conducted by physicians and nurses, through visits in the home by public health nurses, and demonstrations in the home of maternal and infant care; instruction of groups through lectures, motion pictures, slides, charts, and exhibits; classes in infant care for girls, classes in infant and pre-

natal care for mothers, and classes for teachers to prepare them to include maternity and infancy instruction in their class work; instruction to midwives; graduate courses for physicians in obstetrics and pediatrics; courses for nurses; and indirect instruction through the distribution of literature on infant and prenatal care.

At the close of the seven years' work under the Sheppard-Towner Act, June 30, 1929, the cooperating states and Hawaii reported for the period from 1924 to 1929, inclusive, that 144,777 health conferences for expectant mothers and children had been conducted by physicians and 2,978 permanent prenatal and child-health centers had been established. During the last six years of the act public health nurses made more than 3,000,000 visits to homes of mothers and babies. During the last five years of the act a total of 19,723 classes for girls, mothers, and midwives were conducted, more than 22,000,000 pieces of literature on infant and maternal care were distributed, and approximately 700,000 expectant mothers and 4,000,000 infants and preschool children were reported to have been reached in one way or another in 2,717 of the 2,953 counties contained in the 45 cooperating states and the Territory of Hawaii. Assistance was given by state child hygiene divisions and the federal Children's Bureau toward the completion of the United States Birth Registration Area, which expanded from 27 states and the District of Columbia in 1921 to 45 states and the District of Columbia before the Sheppard-Towner Act expired in 1929.

For the operation of the Sheppard-Towner Act the Federal Board of Maternity and Infant Hygiene interpreted the term "infancy" as ending with the preschool period. Thus, facilities for attention to the care of the children from infancy until they should enter school were provided. The health of the preschool child, emphasized through the activities of the Children's Year Campaign and the work under the Sheppard-Towner Act, has been furthered also by the efforts of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, which in 1925 sponsored the examination of preschool children in a so-called "summer round-up," with a view to having defects remedied before the children should enter school in the fall. The number of local parent-teacher associations enrolled to promote the summer round-up has increased each year, a total of 3,592 associations in 45 states having participated in 1929. The local women's clubs affiliated with the General Federation have helped to further this work. Nursery schools, 157 of which had been established in the United States by the end of 1929, have provided opportunities for research in the development of preschool children and for parental education as well. *See* PARENT TEACHER MOVEMENT and NURSERY SCHOOLS.

The effect of the foregoing activities and others of the same general nature is to be seen in the decline in the death rate of infants. In 1928, the last year for which statistics are available, as compared with 1915, the infant death rate had fallen from 100 for each thousand births in the expanded birth registration area to 69. The greatest decrease was in the death rate from gastro-intestinal diseases—a result which reflects the efficiency of the measures which have been taken to inform the public on infant care and feeding.

The rate for maternal mortality, on the other hand, has not shown a reduction for the expanding birth registration area during the same period, the rate for 1915 being 61, and for 1928, 69. However, figures for the larger area in 1928 are not comparable with the earlier figures because of the inclusion of many states with high maternal death rates, such as the states with large Negro populations or states with populations that are scattered or inaccessible to medical services. In spite of these adverse facts, and although organized maternal care is a comparatively recent public health activity, and the difficulties of teaching the public the importance of prenatal care are great, certain improvements are to be noted. A comparison of the states in the registration area

for 1921 (with the exception of South Carolina, which was dropped from the area from 1924 to 1927) with the same states for 1928 shows a lower rate for the later year, namely, a reduction from 67.3 deaths from puerperal causes per 10,000 live births in 1921 to 64.2 in 1928. Nine states in the area of 1928 established new low maternal mortality rates for that year. These were Arizona, Arkansas, Delaware, Florida, Iowa, Pennsylvania, Vermont, West Virginia, and Wyoming. An analysis of maternal mortality by causes shows a definite downward trend for puerperal albuminuria and convulsions, an increase from accidents of labor, and a slight reduction from puerperal sepsis. The Children's Bureau, in reporting in 1929 certain preliminary findings from a cooperative study with 13 states as to the causes of all puerperal deaths within those states, stated that 45 per cent of all the deaths from septicemia in 1927 were preceded by abortions, which means that nearly half of all the deaths from sepsis were not full term deliveries. Of the total 570 deaths preceded by abortions, 309 were induced. Half of the women who died from albuminuria and convulsions had no prenatal care. Of those who had such care, only 6 per cent had the best grade. Elimination of abortion apparently would reduce sepsis, and education of the public on the dangers of abortion seems vitally needed.

The studies made suggest further that plans should be formulated to reduce sepsis through better technique at time of delivery and the elimination of the dangers of cross infection. Increasing facilities for prenatal care are needed for further reduction of deaths from eclampsia; and in view of the increasing death rate from accidents of labor, operative deliveries should be carefully scrutinized by the medical profession.

Developments and Events, 1929. Federal participation in the administration of child hygiene activities was brought to an end, except to a limited extent, by the termination of the Sheppard-Towner Act on June 30, 1929. During the year several hearings were held on substitute bills before the Inter-State and Foreign Commerce Committee of the House of Representatives, and a bill was introduced at a special session of the 71st Congress by Senator Jones, of Washington, (255) and by Representative Cooper, of Ohio, (HR—1195) which was similar to the Sheppard-Towner Act in its provisions, except that it did not provide the $5,000 unmatched grant to each state on acceptance. Instead it increased from $5,000 to $15,000 the minimum amount available to each state which accepts the grant and matches it with the state appropriation. It also extended the act to Porto Rico, Alaska, and the District of Columbia. These companion bills were pending at the end of the calendar year. When federal aid ceased, 16 states appropriated amounts equal to or exceeding the combined federal and state funds of the preceding year for the continuation of child hygiene work. In four states the appropriations exceeded the state appropriations of the preceding year, but were less than the combined state and federal funds had been. Six states appropriated the same or smaller amounts. In three states the appropriation was contingent upon receipt of the federal funds. One state appropriation was for one year only, and the legislatures of five states did not meet in 1929.

During the year the International Health Board created an appropriation of $100,000 for promoting child hygiene work in county units until June 30, 1930, the money to be administered through the United States Public Health Service. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection has a section on Medical Care which includes prenatal and maternal care as well as care for children. It has also a section on Public Health Service and Administration, with subcommittees on Public Health Organization and Milk Production and Control. President Hoover also appointed a commission to study health and welfare conditions among the children of Porto Rico. An important event of the year was the creation of the Children's Fund of Michigan, which has

announced that a county health promotion program is one of the activities to be undertaken.

In 1929 articles of association under the laws of Michigan were adopted for an organization to be known as the American Association of Obstetricians, Gynecologists and Abdominal Surgeons Foundation, Inc. Membership is restricted to members of the Association whose name it bears. "The immediate activities will be the urging of better teaching of obstetrics . . . The Foundation will urge the making of prenatal care universal, and will conduct propaganda among women's clubs, health centers, parent-teacher associations for better understanding of maternal welfare."

During the year the Children's Bureau continued its study of maternal deaths in 15 states in cooperation with state bureaus of child hygiene, and continued its analysis of data collected in a three-year study of rickets in New Haven and Porto Rico; and the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit conducted research in cooperation with the Children's Hospital of Michigan on the biological properties of human milk, prenatal metabolism, metabolism during lactation, and rickets.

CONSULT: Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, *Annual Reports of Administration of the Maternity and Infancy Act;* and its other publications and bibliographies in this field; Baker, S. Josephine: *Child Hygiene* (1925); Ravenel, Mazyck: *A Half Century of Public Health* (Chapter on History of Child Welfare Work in the United States by Philip Van Ingen), 1921; the reports published by the American Child Health Association, Milbank Memorial Fund, Commonwealth Fund, Maternity Center Association of New York, and other agencies mentioned in the text or listed in NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589; also *Transactions* of the American Child Health Association, Sixth Annual Meeting (Minneapolis), 1929.

BLANCHE M. HAINES

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

MATERNITY HOMES. *See* CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK.

MEDICAL CARE, COST OF. *See* COST OF MEDICAL CARE.

MEDICAL INSPECTION OF SCHOOLS. *See* SCHOOL HYGIENE.

MEDICAL RESEARCH AND SOCIAL WORK. *See* BIRTH CONTROL, CANCER, CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, THE DEAF, DIPHTHERIA PREVENTION, DRUG ADDICTION, THE HARD OF HEARING, HEART DISEASE, MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE, MENTAL DEFICIENCY, MENTAL DISEASES, MOUTH HYGIENE, NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN, PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS, PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN, SCHOOL HYGIENE, TUBERCULOSIS, and VENEREAL DISEASES.

MEDICAL SOCIAL WORK. *See* HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORK.

MENDICANCY. *See* BEGGING.

MEN'S HOTELS. *See* RESIDENCES FOR BOYS AND MEN.

MENTAL CLINICS. *See* MENTAL HYGIENE and PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

MENTAL DEFICIENCY. The term "mental deficiency" is used in this article to embrace all defects of intelligence existing from birth or from an early age. It is thus more inclusive than the term "feeble-mindedness," with which in the past it has customarily been used interchangeably. Feeble-mindedness correctly applies only to cases in which defects of intelligence are associated with social and industrial inefficiency. It is accordingly defined by Tredgold as "a state of restricted potentiality for, or arrest of, cerebral development, in consequence of which the person affected is incapable at

maturity of so adapting himself to his environment or to the requirements of the community as to maintain existence independently of supervision or external support." To be distinguished from the feeble-minded are the intellectually subnormal, revealed in large numbers by the army psychological examinations and by industrial and other surveys. Such persons are more or less markedly limited in that kind of intelligence, as yet not well defined, which intelligence tests measure, and yet are reasonably adequate in their social and economic adjustments. Mental deficiency, as here used, includes both intellectual subnormality and feeble-mindedness.

In 1911 the American Association for the Study of the Feebleminded adopted the following definitions: (a) The term "feeble-minded" is used generically to include all degrees of mental defect due to arrested or imperfect mental development as the result of which the person affected is incapable of competing on equal terms with his normal fellows or managing himself or his affairs with ordinary prudence; (b) idiots are those so deeply defective that the mental development never exceeds that of a normal child of about two years; (c) imbeciles are those whose development is higher than that of an idiot but does not exceed that of a normal child of about seven years; and (d) morons are those whose development is higher than that of an imbecile but does not exceed that of a normal child of about 12 years. Although the definition given for the first of these groups made it clear that feeble-mindedness implies social inefficiency, the use of quantitative definitions of idiocy, imbecility, and moronity, in terms of mental age, resulted for a number of years in a careless assumption, which was reflected in general practice, that all persons with a mental age of 12 years or less, or with the corresponding intelligence quotients, were to be considered feeble-minded. It is now generally recognized that the intelligence test, while extremely valuable as an aid to diagnosis, is only one of many factors that must be taken into account in determining feeble-mindedness. Among the others are elements of personality and social adjustment which cannot be quantitatively expressed. Fernald, for example, outlined 10 fields of inquiry for clinical examination. It may be safely assumed that idiots and imbeciles have such marked intellectual defects as almost inevitably to be socially inefficient, and therefore feeble-minded. The so-called morons, although classified as intellectually deficient, may or may not be feeble-minded. Their entire personality and behavior must be considered, the test being whether or not they are reasonably competent, economically and socially.

Mental defects appear to arise from hereditary or familial influences; or from accidents, toxic influences, or diseases before, during, or shortly after birth. Fernald and some other authorities, after studying both institutional and extra-institutional cases, estimated that mental deficiency in fully half of its manifestations is of non-hereditary origin. Little is known with regard to the manner in which hereditary factors operate in the transmission of mental defects. It is a vastly complicated problem of genetics, and prediction as to the outcome of any given union is subject to many uncertainties. Recent scientific evidence is in general agreement that the former concept of the Mendelian, unit-character inheritance of mental deficiency must be discarded.

The only large-scale psychological survey of a fairly typical cross-section of the American population was provided by the examinations of the men recruited into the Army during the World War. So many cautions need to be observed in interpreting the findings of those army tests that it seems unsafe to base a definite estimate upon them. They give reason to believe, however, that the number of persons in the country who would have a rating of 12 years mental age or less in such tests would run into some millions. All such estimates depend primarily upon where the dividing line between normality and subnormality is arbitrarily

placed. The number of definitely feeble-minded persons is doubtless much smaller. A recent careful survey in England by Dr. E. O. Lewis, for the Joint Mental Deficiency Committee, showed about eight feeble-minded persons per thousand of the general population. This would give an estimate of slightly less than one million feeble-minded persons in this country. Since feeble-mindedness by its very definition implies social and industrial inefficiency, it is obvious that many complicated social problems are associated with it. It must be recognized also that the intellectually subnormal are potentially feeble-minded, and that large social questions are involved in providing the training and environment which will prevent such persons from becoming social failures. From its beginning the organized mental hygiene movement has recognized mental deficiency as one of its major concerns, and has made many studies in this field from which programs for improved care and control have been developed and put into execution.

History and Present Status. The first scientific work in the study and training of the feeble-minded was undertaken in France in the early part of the nineteenth century by Itard and his pupil, Seguin. The latter's writings prompted Dr. Hervey B. Wilbur to open his home in Barre, Mass., in 1848, as the first school in this country for the education of the feeble-minded. In the same year also the State of Massachusetts opened the first public institution in America for the feeble-minded, under the superintendency of Dr. Samuel G. Howe. That institution is now known as the Walter E. Fernald State School and is located at Waverley. The second public institution in the country was established by New York State at Albany in 1851 and was transferred to Syracuse in 1854. Pennsylvania and Ohio followed in 1854 and 1857 respectively. Seguin, having moved to America, personally aided in the development of these early institutions, which were opened in the hope inspired by him of curing feeble-mindedness. It was soon realized, however, that this was impossible, and the institutions were gradually forced to make provision for the lifelong care of many cases. This early period of institutional development, up to about 1900, marked the first stage in the movement in this country.

The second stage of the movement, which may be described as that of eugenic emphasis and social alarm, had its beginnings about the turn of the century and continued for nearly two decades. Two principal factors led to this phase of the movement—a growing interest in eugenics and studies of human heredity, particularly the heredity of degenerate stocks, and the development and application of the Binet-Simon method of intelligence testing, which resulted in the discovery of large numbers of mental defectives in the community heretofore unrecognized. Studies of such families as the Kallikaks led Goddard and Davenport, among others, to see the working of the Mendelian law of inheritance in the transmission of feeble-mindedness; and in 1911 Davenport enunciated the first law of heredity to the effect that "two mentally defective parents will produce only mentally defective offspring." For some years the conclusion of Goddard was generally supported, that "feeble-mindedness is hereditary in a large percentage of cases, and that it is transmitted in accordance with the Mendelian formula."

Along with these studies of heredity was published a mass of other material, emphasizing the strong anti-social proclivities of the mentally deficient. Surveys of inmates of state prisons showed an average of 27 per cent to be feeble-minded, of reformatory inmates a percentage of feeble-minded ranging as high as 45 per cent, of penitentiaries and workhouses as high as 42 per cent, of training schools for delinquents as high as 50 per cent. The purport of all these findings was summed up in Fernald's paper, "The Burden of Feeblemindedness," as follows: "The social and economic burdens of uncomplicated feeble-mindedness are only too

well known. The feeble-minded are a parasitic, predatory class, never capable of self-support or of managing their own affairs. The majority ultimately become public charges in some form. They cause unutterable sorrow at home and are a menace and danger to the community. Feeble-minded women are almost invariably immoral, and if at large usually become carriers of venereal disease or give birth to children who are as defective as themselves . . . Every feeble-minded person, especially the high-grade imbecile, is a potential criminal, needing only the proper environment and opportunity for the development and expression of his criminal tendencies."

The emphasis upon hereditary causation centered attention upon mental deficiency as a problem of eugenics. Various measures which would prevent the propagation of the mentally defective were proposed with a view to ridding the race of its defective strains. A large number of states appointed investigating commissions, and most of their reports, as well as the reports of unofficial inquiries, emphasized sterilization, supplemented by lifelong segregation, as the most effective measure of social and eugenic control. Indiana passed the first sterilization statute in 1907. Up to the present time 27 states have enacted such laws, but in three states they have been declared unconstitutional. Popular, religious, and scientific opposition, questions of constitutionality and of administrative procedure, have combined to prevent the effective operation of these sterilization statutes in all states excepting California. On the whole, sterilization has not been tested on a large enough scale to be of any material significance either from the standpoint of eugenics or of social control. The latest figures available show that up to July 1, 1926, only 1,374 feeble-minded persons had been sterilized, of whom 877, or 64 per cent, were in California. The decision of the Supreme Court of the United States, on March 2, 1927, in upholding the Virginia sterilization statute, has removed the question of constitutionality, and may result in the more widespread enactment and enforcement of sterilization laws.

The proposal for lifelong segregation has likewise fallen far short of its original mark. This has been due partly to lack of sufficient appropriations, but even more to the ever-growing estimates of the number of mental defectives, particularly those of moron grade. It soon became apparent that there was no possible hope of obtaining institutional accommodations sufficient for all. Gradually also arose the question as to whether the segregation of all the mentally deficient was desirable or justified. In 1910 the number of feeble-minded in state institutions was 20,731, or 22.5 per 100,000 population. In the 13 years of most active effort for increased institutional provision, from 1910 to 1923, the number of feeble-minded in institutions rose to 42,954, or 39.3 per 100,000 population. In 1928 the number was 60,490, or 52.2 per 100,000 population. In contrast with the 60,000 now institutionalized is the conservative estimate based on British experience of nearly 1,000,000 feeble-minded persons in the country.

At this juncture the third and present phase of development began to manifest itself. The inadequacy of the sterilization and segregation programs to cope with the problem in any extensive way necessarily led to the consideration of extra-institutional methods of control, which in turn called attention to the social possibilities of the mentally deficient. Publication in 1919 of Fernald's after-care study of patients discharged from the institution at Waverley, Mass., seems to have marked the turning point. Surprising Fernald himself, in showing the acceptable way in which many former inmates of the institution had fitted into community life, this study was in marked contrast to his own previously expressed views as to the menace of the mentally deficient. At the basis, therefore, of the modern program lies the fact, apparently proved by work already done, that feeble-mindedness in the social sense, as distinguished from intellectual deficiency, can frequently be pre-

vented and even cured. The social and industrial shortcomings which characterize feeble-mindedness are seen to be frequently the results of society's failure to provide suitable training and environment, from early life, for those who at first are deficient in intellect.

Scientific views with regard to the inheritance of mental deficiency have also been revised. Recent studies in genetics have shown that feeble-mindedness is not a simple biological unit. There are rather many different kinds, as well as degrees, of mental defects. Feeble-mindedness can therefore no longer be regarded as a unit character transmitted according to a simple Mendelian formula. Hundreds of genes are now seen to be involved in the making of a normal mind or a feeble mind, and their possible combinations in any given union are so varied as to warrant no prediction of outcome or "law of inheritance." Furthermore, as previously noted, approximately one-half of all cases of mental defect are now regarded to be of non-hereditary origin.

The public school comes first in the modern program. It must be relied upon to identify the mentally deficient in childhood, to study them as individuals, and to put them in the way of the specialized training they need. A few will have to have institutional care, but for most of them the school itself must be prepared to provide suitable instruction. Beginning with such fundamentals as habit and character training, and the improvement of home and social conditions through the aid of visiting teachers, the school through well-organized special classes stresses hand work, of a practical type where possible, as the best medium of training the mentally deficient after their limit in academic lines has been reached. In all too few centers the special class leads on to real vocational and industrial training, so that by the time the working age is reached the mentally deficient boy or girl may be well prepared for gainful employment. Good examples of vocational training are the trade extension classes in New York City and the pre-vocational schools in Rochester. The Vocational Adjustment Bureau for girls in New York City, an unofficial agency, has demonstrated the constructive results that can be accomplished by a placement service which is based on scientific studies of subnormal individuals, and of jobs to which they may be adjusted. Studies by the federal Children's Bureau, and by various school systems of the after-careers of special class graduates, show that approximately three-fourths of them have had good industrial and social records.

The latest information as to special classes for mental defectives in public schools, obtained by Dr. Arch O. Heck for the academic year 1927–1928, shows 266 cities with a total of 2,552 special classes in which 46,625 subnormal children were enrolled. It is probable that this figure is not complete, since some cities failed to answer the questionnaire. Two per cent is the usual estimate of the number of mentally deficient children of school age for whom special class provision should be made. On this basis, some 500,000 children in the country would be indicated as subjects for special class training. It may be expected, on the basis of recent experience, that with proper training only a small fraction of such children will turn out to be feeble-minded.

For the identification and understanding of children needing special class instruction, adequate clinical service is essential. In Massachusetts the entire state is divided into as many districts as there are mental hygiene institutions, and by each of these institutions a well-organized traveling clinic has been created for service to all public schools in its district. In other states—Connecticut, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Minnesota, Rhode Island, Wisconsin, and Wyoming—traveling clinics have been organized, or field service of clinic units has been made available to local communities, upon request, for the diagnosis and classification of retarded school children and others needing such service.

In the modern program the institution is no longer regarded simply as a receptacle

for segregating the feeble-minded and keeping them from procreation, but rather as a training center for the social development of the limited number of more difficult cases not suitable for instruction in special classes in the public schools. Consequently, practically all institutions have developed parole systems, whereby after a period of institutional training, those individuals who show promise may be returned, on trial and under supervision, to community life. On January 1, 1928, according to the United States census, there were 7,950 patients on parole from state institutions for the feeble-minded and epileptic. In 1922 the number had been but 3,758. Studies made by various institutions of the records of patients paroled and discharged have shown the majority to have adjusted to community life in an acceptable manner.

Many institutions throughout the country operate farm colonies. At the state institution at Rome, N. Y., where the colony plan has had its most extensive development, half as many patients are housed in colonies as in the central buildings. There are at present 655 boys and men in 31 colonies, of which all but one are farm colonies. This one is an industrial colony, occupying a town dwelling in the city of Rome, from which the boys are employed at odd jobs about town. Three of the colonies are on farm property and are junior or school colonies for boys under 14. The others are working colonies for older boys and men. All groups occupy typical farmhouses situated on the land which the boys cultivate. Practically all of the farm colonies are within a few miles of the institution. The colonies for women now have a population of 343. Eight of them are of the domestic service type, three of the industrial type, and three are junior or school colonies. The domestic service colonies are in cities and towns, and the girls find domestic employment largely at work by the day. The industrial colonies are in three small mill towns not far from Rome, where the girls are employed in knitting mills. All rental costs of colony properties, and also a large part of the other maintenance costs, are covered by the earnings of inmates. Thus the institution has been able to increase its capacity by one-half without cost to the state. The primary objective of the colony plan, however, is not to reduce the cost of care, but to provide practical training under normal community conditions for boys and girls who show promise of being fitted later into community life.

Forty-three states and the District of Columbia maintain one or more special institutions for the feeble-minded or for the feeble-minded and epileptic, a total of 75. Three of the remaining states—Arizona, New Mexico, and Utah—have authorized the construction of such institutions, leaving only Arkansas and Nevada without special facilities, actual or authorized. The number of patients in these institutions in 1928 was 60,490, or 52.2 per 100,000 population. There are 90 private institutions now in operation for mentally defective or for mental defectives and epileptics, but their population is very small.

In 31 states the state institutions for mental defectives are administered by general state agencies for public welfare, known by a variety of names and responsible also for other state institutions (*See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES); and in nine states such institutions are administered by state departments or boards of mental hygiene, responsible only for institutions for the mentally ill, feeble-minded and epileptic. In three states there are separate boards of managers for these institutions, and the one institution in North Carolina is under the joint control of a division of mental health and a division of institutions.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. According to the United States Office of Education (Bulletin, 1927, No. 19), seven states—California, Connecticut, Minnesota, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wyoming—issue special certificates for teachers of subnormal children on the basis of a specified degree of special training or

experience. Other states specifically providing by statute for the establishment of qualifications of special class teachers by the state departments of education include Massachusetts, New York, Wisconsin, Missouri, and Louisiana. Michigan stands out as a state which has maintained high standards without statutory provision. The general trend in the more progressive states is to require teachers of subnormal children to have had special training and experience with both normal and subnormal children. Teaching experience alone is not considered adequate. The courses of study principally stressed are those dealing with clinical tests and measurements, psychology of the defective child, principles of teaching defective children, and hand work for subnormal children. In addition to a number of state normal schools and colleges, educational institutions which give special attention to these subjects include, among others, the following: Teachers College of Columbia University, the Training School at Vineland, N. J., University of Minnesota, New York University, Brown University, University of California, and Yale University.

Developments and Events, 1929. The federal Office of Education reported the creation during the year of a new division concerned with the educational problems of the mentally, morally, and physically handicapped, and from many parts of the country reports were received of a steadily increasing number of special classes for backward children. From Ohio preparations were reported for the erection of two state institutions for mental defectives, and significant increases in institutional accommodations were reported also from Connecticut, Illinois, Louisiana, Michigan, Minnesota, and Washington. During the year the state of New Jersey opened its new institution at Totowa for high-grade mentally deficient girls of school age. In Massachusetts and Connecticut there was further development of the systems previously established of having investigations made by social case workers of all persons on the waiting lists of institutions. The studies in progress during the year included those of the Research Laboratory at Vineland, relating to the mental growth of the borderline feeble-minded in that institution, and a survey of mental hygiene facilities and resources in New York City, by the New York City Committee on Mental Hygiene, in which the available resources of the city for dealing with the mentally deficient were recorded.

Legislation, 1929. Most legislation in this field deals with appropriations providing facilities for institutional care. The most significant appropriations of the year were the following: The State of Utah (Ch. 75), previously without a separate institution for the feeble-minded, made an initial appropriation for one; New York (Ch. 593) appropriated $3,000,000 for the Wassaic state school, and Pennsylvania (No. 341A) $243,000 for a new institution for male defective delinquents. States for the first time enacting laws for the sterilization of feeble-minded were Arizona (Ch. 44), North Carolina (Ch. 34), and West Virginia (Ch. 4). Other states which replaced or amended former sterilization statutes with new ones designed to be more efficient were Delaware (Ch. 245), Idaho (Ch. 285), Iowa (Ch. 66), Maine (Ch. 6), Michigan (Ch. 281), Nebraska (Ch. 163), New Hampshire (Ch. 138), and Utah (Ch. 59). Sterilization bills failed of passage in Illinois, Missouri, New York, Oklahoma, Texas, and Washington.

CONSULT: Tredgold, A. F.: *Mental Deficiency*, 1929, 5th edition; *Report of the Mental Deficiency Committee*, 1929 (London); Wallin, J. E. W.: *The Education of Handicapped Children*, 1924; Healy, William: *The Individual Delinquent*, 1915; Davies, Stanley P.: *Social Control of the Mentally Deficient*, 1930; Dayton, Neil A.: "Psychiatric School Clinics for the Examination of Retarded Children," in *Common Health* (Massachusetts Department of Public Health), April–June, 1929; Doll, E. A.: "Community Control of the Feebleminded," in *Journal of Psycho-Asthenics*, 1929; Storrs, Harry C.: "A Report on an Investigation Made of Cases Discharged from Letchworth

Village," in *Journal of Psycho-Asthenics*, 1929; Wallace, George L.: "Are the Feebleminded Criminals?" in *Mental Hygiene*, January, 1929.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

MENTAL DISEASES. The extent and significance of mental diseases in the United States can be judged in part by the fact that at least one-half of the approximately 800,000 hospital beds now to be found in this country are set aside for the mentally ill. The cost of operating hospitals for mental patients is said to be about $80,000,000 annually, and the economic loss caused by their illness is estimated to represent a further $300,000,000 each year.

There has been a great increase during recent years in the number of mental patients under hospital care, but even in the states which have carried on the most comprehensive building programs, many hospitals are overcrowded and it is impossible to keep up with the demand for beds. The fact that there are more patients in mental hospitals, however, does not necessarily mean that so-called insanity is on the increase. It is rather an evidence of better hospitals, greater confidence in them on the part of the public, a tendency to receive mild, borderline cases in larger numbers, and to admit patients earlier in the course of the disease. It is also in recognition of the general principle that, as in other medical conditions, the sooner mental illness is recognized and proper treatment applied, the more likely is the patient to recover.

A comprehensive mental health program includes such organized activities as central supervisory boards or departments of state government, private and public mental hospitals, psychiatric clinics, not only for adults but also for children, and institutes or foundations for research, diagnosis, intensive treatment, and educational purposes. This article will discuss the institutional and community care of the mentally ill and also the agencies which are carrying on research in the mental diseases. For discussion of other parts of the mental health program *see* MENTAL HYGIENE, PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN, CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS, and PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK.

History and Present Status. Largely as a result of the activities of Dorothea Lynde Dix, who during the years immediately preceding the Civil War memorialized legislatures in behalf of better provisions for mental patients, the states gradually began to remove their insane from almshouses and jails, and build asylums for them. At first these asylums were usually placed under the supervision of state boards of charities, but later, in many states, separate boards of insanity or commissioners on lunacy were created whose sole responsibility was the insane. The first was the Commissioner on Lunacy of New York, who was appointed in 1873. Similar supervisory boards or commissioners have since been established in some 43 states; they are known as boards of control, state hospital commissions, commissioners of mental hygiene, bureaus of mental health or state welfare departments, and so on. Some of these supervisory bodies exercise control also over state institutions other than those for mental patients. Where the boards are well organized, they have fiscal and general control over the state hospitals, being empowered to fix standards of treatment and care, apply the law relating to mental cases, direct building operations, and exercise such other supervisory powers as are deemed necessary to insure adequate care for the mentally ill.

The earliest institutions for mental patients were rightly called "asylums," for they were little more than places of refuge for persons who had formerly been, almost everywhere, neglected, feared, persecuted or subjected to other abuse. As mental patients became better understood, and as the need for thorough diagnostic study and treatment became recognized, these asylums

were gradually transformed into mental hospitals. Benjamin Franklin had much to do with the establishment in 1751 of the first private institution in the United States for the mentally ill—the hospital in Philadelphia which is now known as the Department for Nervous and Mental Diseases of the Pennsylvania Hospital. In Williamsburg, Va., the Public Hospital for Persons of Insane and Disordered Mind was incorporated in 1768 and opened on October 12, 1773. This institution, now known as the Eastern State Hospital, is therefore the oldest state-owned hospital in America to be used exclusively for the care of the insane.

The development and improvement of hospital facilities for mental patients was one of the earliest objectives of the mental hygiene movement, and the efforts of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene have for the past quarter century been an important factor in the hospital field. Every state now has one or more public institutions for mental patients which are in varying degrees mental hospitals in the true sense of the word, and there are many private institutions of like degrees of efficiency. Mental hospitals tend now to maintain increasingly elaborate equipment for thorough diagnosis and treatment, and many of them are active centers for research and for leadership in mental hygiene in the communities which they serve. Most state hospitals operate traveling clinics or offer psychiatric services to the localities in which they are situated. Many have developed systems of parole whereby patients who are well on the road to recovery can be returned to their homes under supervision, thus lessening the expense to their families and releasing hospital beds for the care of the more seriously ill. The efficiency of the better mental hospitals may be judged by the fact that recovery rates of 25 per cent are by no means uncommon in such institutions.

In addition to the research carried on by the more progressive state hospitals, several states have established highly specialized institutions known as psychopathic or psychiatric institutions or hospitals, which are primarily research centers for the intensive study and treatment of special groups of problem cases, and for the training of workers in these fields. They are usually closely affiliated with general hospitals and medical schools, and afford the highest type of psychiatric service. The first such institution to be established was the State Psychopathic Hospital at Ann Arbor, Mich., opened in 1906. Others were the Boston Psychopathic Hospital (1912), the Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic of the Johns Hopkins Hospital (1913), and the Colorado Psychopathic Hospital (1924). In 1929 the New York State Psychiatric Institute, which had formerly been operated without direct university connection, was transferred to its new site in New York City, where it became part of the Medical Center of Columbia University and the Presbyterian Hospital. These research institutions constitute the leadership and inspiration in psychiatry for the states in which they are located. They also offer much direct service to the mentally ill whom they accept as hospital patients and for whom they maintain large and flourishing out-patient departments or clinics.

The establishment of such psychiatric clinics attached to hospitals or operating independently constitutes, as a matter of fact, one of the most outstanding developments in the field of prevention. Only a few are reported as having been established before 1912, among the earliest being the clinic connected with the Philadelphia Orthopaedic Hospital and Infirmary for Nervous Diseases (1867) and the Nerve Clinic of the Boston Dispensary (1873). In 1929 there were approximately 500 such clinics in the United States. They serve thousands of patients annually and save many of them from the necessity of being committed to a state hospital. Most of these clinics are mobile and are sent out from one of the hospitals for mental diseases, or from a central state agency, with a staff consisting usually of a psychiatrist, psychologist, psychiatric social worker, and secretary. In a recent study

26 states were found to be conducting such clinics occasionally, but only 11 had regularly organized systems. Three of these were especially well developed. Beginning often as centers for the observation and reporting of paroled patients from mental hospitals, these clinics tend to serve more and more persons seeking advice about mental symptoms of all kinds. It is especially gratifying to note that an increasing percentage of clinic patients is made up of children referred by parents, teachers or social workers, for children obviously constitute the best material for preventive work. *See* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

Developments and Events, 1929. The change in location and the expansion of activity of the New York State Psychiatric Institute already mentioned are perhaps the most important events of the year in this field. Associated as it is with a medical school, a modern general hospital with an outstanding school for nurses, and other affiliated foundations, the opportunity for research in the field of psychiatry is unsurpassed.

A second important event was the building of the first separate and especially designed unit for children in connection with a state hospital for the mentally ill. For several years children manifesting various neurological symptoms accompanied by evidence of severe maladjustment have caused much concern to psychiatrists, and special groups have been studied in various places, notably at King's Park, New York, and at the Pennsylvania Hospital at Philadelphia. In response to the increasing demand for mental hospital facilities for children, the state of Pennsylvania financed the erection of a new unit for this purpose at the Allentown State Hospital. Plans for the First International Congress on Mental Hygiene to be held in Washington, in May, 1930, include important meetings on questions affecting the institutional care of the mentally ill. The establishment of the Institute of Human Relations at Yale University creates a new link between psychology and psychiatry and other sciences, and marks a new epoch in the campaign for the prevention of mental disease.

Legislation, 1929. During the year there were the usual necessary legislative enactments providing for the maintenance of mental patients in institutions. In several states, as a result of bond issues, exceptionally large amounts became available for new institutions, or marked extensions of existing hospitals. In other states drives for bond issues were defeated. In many states the laws were amended to permit the use of the United States Veterans Bureau Hospitals for mental patients. Sterilization laws were enacted or amended in several states. These are listed in MENTAL DEFICIENCY. See also the legislation reported in the articles on MENTAL HYGIENE, CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS, and PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

CONSULT: United States Department of Commerce, Bureau of the Census: *Mental Patients in State Hospitals in 1926–1927*; United States War Department, *Neuropsychiatry* (Volume X of the Medical Department of the United States Army in the World War), 1929; Bibliographies and reading lists published by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene; White, William A.: *Outlines of Psychiatry* (12th Edition), 1929; May, James V.: *Mental Diseases, A Public Health Problem*, 1922; and Bleuler, Eugene: *Textbook of Psychiatry* (translated by Dr. A. A. Brill), 1924; also issues of *Mental Hygiene* (National Committee for Mental Hygiene).

WILLIAM C. SANDY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

MENTAL HYGIENE. In 1929 the organized mental hygiene movement celebrated its twentieth birthday. In those 20 years the form and content of mental hygiene have undergone great changes, but none of these is more astonishing than the change occurring in the boundaries of the

field of work. As conceived originally by Clifford W. Beers and those associated with him, the mental hygiene movement began as a relatively simple "reform" effort to correct abuses in institutions for the insane. It was not long, however, before its preventive possibilities were sensed and the initial plan of work revised to include attention to prophylaxis. Today the field of mental hygiene has burst its original boundaries and become virtually coextensive with the field of human endeavor itself. Mental hygiene concepts have permeated the points of view and techniques of many other organizations whose assistance, in turn, has been enlisted by official mental hygiene until there promises an interdependence of effort that will soon present a united front against departures from mental health.

How widely mental hygiene has departed from its original and sole concern for the insane in institutions is well illustrated in the following statement by Dr. C. Macfie Campbell: "Mental hygiene is not concerned merely with those serious forms of mental disorder which require treatment in state hospitals; it is concerned with those other forms of mental disorders which do not necessarily mean the removal of the individual from his ordinary social environment. A disorder is a mental disorder if its roots are mental. A headache indicates a mental disorder if it comes because one is dodging something disagreeable. A pain in the back is a mental disorder if its persistence is due to discouragement and a feeling of uncertainty and a desire to have a sick benefit, rather than to put one's back into one's work. Sleeplessness is a mental disorder if its basis lies in personal worries and emotional tangles. Many mental reactions are indications of poor mental health, although they are not usually classed as mental disorders. Discontent with one's environment may be a mental disorder if its cause lies, not in some external situation, but in personal failure to deal with one's emotional problems. Suspicion, distrust, misinterpretation, are mental disorders when they are the disguised expression of repressed longings, into which the patient has no clear insight. Stealing sometimes indicates mental disorder, as the odd expression of underlying conflicts in the patient's nature. A feeling of fatigue sometimes represents, not overwork, but discouragement, inability to meet situations, lack of interest in the opportunities available. Unsociability, marital incompatibility, alcoholism, an aggressive and embittered social attitude, may all indicate a disorder of the mental balance, which may be open to modification."

History and Present Status. The National Committee for Mental Hygiene was the first large agency to dedicate itself to work in this field. Founded in February, 1909, it had been preceded by—and was, in a sense, based on—an earlier organization, the Connecticut Society for Mental Hygiene, which Clifford Beers had established in New Haven following his experiences as a patient in several institutions for the mentally diseased. His autobiography, *A Mind That Found Itself*, played an important rôle in stimulating public support for the organization both of the Connecticut Society and later of the National Committee, and continues to enlist wide interest in mental hygiene matters.

When the National Committee for Mental Hygiene began active work in 1912, the field was a completely pioneer one—no previous experience existed on which to base plans, and work of the most elementary nature was required. Little factual material was in existence and the Committee's program from 1912 until 1917 was largely devoted to the collection of statistics and other data regarding the size of the problem, its nature, and its most vulnerable points for attack. Many surveys of conditions in institutions were likewise undertaken in those years, as well as studies of legislation pertaining to the mentally sick and defective. Educational activities among the lay public were not neglected, and a slowly increasing body of literature was developed to aid in informing people of the work.

Mental Hygiene

Early in the life of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene it was seen that the task confronting it was too great for a national agency, unassisted by local interests, to accomplish, and accordingly encouragement was given to local groups to establish state societies for mental hygiene. Such a state organization had been founded in Connecticut in 1908. In 1909 Illinois established a state society, while in 1910 the Mental Hygiene Committee of the New York State Charities Aid Association began to function as a state society in this field. In 1913 Massachusetts joined these groups with an organization of its own, and a little later Maryland was added to the number. Pennsylvania established its mental hygiene society in 1913, as the Committee on Mental Hygiene of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania. By the end of 1929, 24 state societies for mental hygiene were in existence, many of them with local branches or subcommittees. Not all were engaged in active work, but all represented nuclei of influential opinion that could be turned to good advantage with little effort. Each of these state or local organizations is independent and is financed locally. However, a close *rapport* and mutuality of purpose and method with the National Committee for Mental Hygiene insure uniformity and a high quality of professional effort.

The programs, aims, and purposes of these state societies naturally vary somewhat with the character of local needs. Most of them, however, conform to the official aims of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene as follows: "The National Committee for Mental Hygiene, directly and through its affiliated state societies and local committees, works for the conservation of mental health; the reduction and prevention of mental and nervous disorders and defects; the improved care and treatment of those suffering from mental diseases; the special training and supervision of the feeble-minded; and the acquisition and dissemination of reliable information on these subjects and on mental factors involved in the problems of education, industry, delinquency, dependency, and others related to the broad field of human behavior."

In 1917 the World War caused a suspension of most civilian mental hygiene work by diverting activity to military zones. An important psychiatric program was conducted in both the army and the navy, which later was influential in focusing public interest upon so-called "shell shock" and other functional nervous conditions. The war also forced to a head a previously slowly growing movement in technical psychiatry which was based on a vigorous treatment program of psychotherapy as contrasted to the traditional program of classification and custodial care.

In 1920 civilian mental hygiene was resumed with fresh vigor, but as work progressed it became more and more clear that the prevention of nervous and mental ill health could not be accomplished by any single agency or profession, nor could success be achieved through the use of any one technique. The period in which preventive efforts might be expected to yield most fruitful results had gradually been pushed backward from adulthood to adolescence, and from adolescence to childhood and the preschool years. With this tendency came a recognition that mental health (and particularly child mental health) was inextricably linked with every other factor that impinged against the patient's experience, and could be safeguarded only by a joint defense to which not only mental hygiene but education, medicine, sociology, and kindred agencies made cooperative contributions. The first and most important step in this direction was the organization of a clinical program, at first for the prevention of juvenile delinquency, but later to include all aspects of problems of behavior and personality in children. For a discussion of the various activities carried on as part of this program, *see* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN. Gradually the original emphasis on the prevention of delinquency became less of an objective as the Committee realized the

greater value in helping the child to make a more satisfactory all-round adjustment to life, in the process of which the prevention of delinquency, as a separate goal, was merged in the prevention of mental disorder in general.

Another development of importance has been the great growth of interest in mental hygiene in colleges; *i.e.*, the use of specially trained psychiatrists in colleges and universities for assisting in the solution of problems of student maladjustment. At least 14 colleges now have full-time or part-time staff psychiatrists, Yale having the most highly developed program with four full-time psychiatrists and a psychiatric social worker. The demand for such services far exceeds the number of properly prepared psychiatrists available, and reinforces the demands from other fields for psychiatrists with extra-mural training.

Another important piece of mental hygiene work is being conducted through a special division on mental hygiene of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers which has a psychiatrist for chairman. Educational programs chiefly dealing with the mental hygiene training of children are conducted by this division through the state chairmen of mental hygiene of the Congress. In this way a considerable number of the two million members of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers are becoming familiarized with the rudiments of mental hygiene concepts. *See* PARENT TEACHER MOVEMENT.

In recent years not only have non-governmental social agencies begun to incorporate mental hygiene concepts into their work, but several state governments also have reorganized many of their programs along mental hygiene lines. Thus, the former State Hospital Commission of New York has been officially renamed The State Department of Mental Hygiene, and its original functions have been broadened by inclusion of numerous community projects not at first considered as falling within the scope of work of a purely institutional program. Massachusetts also has a centralized State Department of Mental Disease with an extensive community mental hygiene program, while Pennsylvania and Maryland have followed suit. Other states, with the exception of Illinois, Virginia, Connecticut, and Colorado, have practically no official governmental program for extra-mural mental hygiene.

Developments and Events, 1929. The most important event of the year was the completion of plans for the First International Congress on Mental Hygiene held in Washington, May 5–10, 1930, with official representatives in attendance from more than 50 foreign countries. The year was notable also for an increase in the number of fellowships awarded for training in psychiatry—both mural and extra-mural. Such fellowships are available to properly qualified applicants from the National Committee for Mental Hygiene through grants from the Rockefeller Foundation, and also from the Commonwealth Fund. During the year nearly 20 such fellowships were awarded by these two foundations in addition to a large number of others granted by the Commonwealth Fund for training in psychiatric social work and in psychology. At the close of the year, however, the problem of sufficient trained personnel in the field of mental hygiene was still a grave one, and the demand for professional workers promised to exceed the supply for many years.

Several important surveys of mental hygiene conditions were undertaken during the year. One of these, conducted by the National Society of Penal Information, ascertained psychiatric facilities and practices in penal and correctional institutions throughout the United States. Another was an extensive study of the mental hygiene resources and needs of New York City, which covered hospitals and out-patient clinics, public schools, courts, and social agencies.

During the year a study course in mental hygiene was prepared by the chairman of

the Division on Mental Hygiene of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, designed chiefly for members living in districts where no psychiatric leadership is available. The course was based on reading references selected from a wide variety of pamphlets published by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. Some 50,000 copies of the syllabus of this study course were distributed.

Legislation, 1929. For legislation of significance in this field, enacted during 1929, *see* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN, CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS, MENTAL DISEASES, and MENTAL DEFICIENCY.

CONSULT: Groves and Blanchard: *Mental Hygiene,* 1930; Pratt, George K.: *Your Mind and You,* 1924; Groves, Ernest R.: *Personality and Social Adjustment,* 1923; Davies, Stanley P.: *Social Control of the Mentally Deficient,* 1930; Thom, Douglas A.: *Everyday Problems of the Everyday Child,* 1927; Chadwick, Mary: *Difficulties in Child Development,* 1928; Williams, Frankwood E.: *Adolescence—Studies in Mental Hygiene* (Farrar, New York), 1930; Hart, Bernard: *The Psychology of Insanity,* 1929; and The National Committee for Mental Hygiene: *Suggestions for Reading in Mental Hygiene and Allied Subjects* (a bibliography revised twice yearly), and its pamphlets, over 400 in member.

GEORGE K. PRATT

For other related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

MIDDLE AGE SECURITY. Unemployment is a problem facing the United States and all other great nations of the world today. There has developed in the United States, however, within the last few years, a special kind of unemployment which has assumed serious proportions. This is the unemployment of men and women of 35 years and over who belong to the clerical or executive class. While public labor bureaus make provision for manual and skilled wage-earners, they offer little help to the unemployed executive or clerical worker of middle age. It is estimated by the writer that there are in the United States today approximately one million educated men and women 35 years old and over who are unemployed, and who find it impossible to obtain even the most menial opportunities of earning a living. Yet they are at the most efficient period in their lives. This condition is due to the policy prevalent in many large business organizations of employing only those who are in the years of young manhood and young womanhood. Applications from persons over 35, no matter how efficient they may be, are discouraged.

The following statement of the unemployment provisions of the three specified age groups is generally true: (a) Youth, 15 to 30 years of age—generally provided for; (b) middle age, 30 to 65 years of age—unprovided for; (c) old age, 70 years of age and over—provided for in an increasing number of states by means of old age pensions, and in many large plants through industrial retirement funds.

History and Present Status. It was in order to meet this special problem that the National Association for Middle Age Employees was organized in 1928. It endeavors, first of all, by extensive publicity to focus public attention on the needs of mature workers in industry. It then aims to demonstrate to industrial leaders, bankers, manufacturers, and merchants that in certain positions there is an economic advantage to them in employing experienced workers without regard to age. An equally important purpose of the Association is related to the unemployed middle-aged worker himself. To restore his morale and improve his mental attitude, not only toward employers but toward himself, a school of instruction is being organized for which successful business men have volunteered their service as instructors.

CONSULT: Davis, James J.: "Old Age at Fifty," in *North American Review,* May, 1928; Davis, James J.: "Past Industry's Deadline at Forty," in *Herald Tribune Magazine,* April 21, 1929;

Chase, Stuart: "Laid Off at Forty," in *Harper's Magazine*, August, 1929.

WILLIAM HENRY ROBERTS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 589.

MINIMUM WAGE. Every minimum wage law enacted in the United States has declared as its purpose that women wage-earners shall be paid a sufficient wage to support themselves in a proper and healthful manner. If large groups of the population are paid such low wages that they cannot provide for themselves decent food, shelter, and clothing, their resulting ill health and often ultimate dependency are inimical to the best interests of society. Investigations have repeatedly shown that many women receive wages below the cost of subsistence. Someone must make up this difference—the public, the woman's family, or the woman herself. Since the state usually must help such workers in misfortune, illness, or old age, and since the general depletion of the woman's strength and health is against the interest of society, it has seemed to many people that the state should see that all women who do a full day's work get a wage adequate for their support.

That the wages of a very large proportion of the women workers in this country are exceedingly low is proved by all the important studies of the conditions under which women work. In the investigation conducted by the federal government in 1907 to 1910, *Woman and Child Wage Earners in the United States*, in studies made by private organizations and by state labor departments since 1900, and in studies conducted after 1918 by the federal Women's Bureau, low wages have been shown to be the rule, not the exception. It is not possible to specify certain localities or certain industries as the chief offenders. Thousands of women have been found to be earning pitifully small sums.

Most women do unskilled or semi-skilled work. They have poor bargaining power because of immobility, timidity, and lack of organization, and they must overcome the theory that women usually live cheaply at home and have few dependents. How to aid this depressed group of workers is a difficult problem. They are hard to organize. Education either of the employer to their needs and true value, or of the workers to the importance of their contribution, or of the public to the burdens carried by these women, has been exceedingly slow. To follow Great Britain, Australia, and New Zealand in guaranteeing women workers by law a wage sufficient to enable them to support themselves, seemed a practical means of remedying a harmful situation.

History and Present Status. The American experiment began in 1913 when the minimum wage laws of California, Colorado, Massachusetts, Minnesota, Nebraska, Oregon, Utah, Washington, and Wisconsin became effective. Arkansas and Kansas followed in 1915, Arizona in 1917, District of Columbia in 1918, North Dakota, Texas, and Porto Rico in 1919, and South Dakota in 1923. Minimum wage laws may be inflexible—the law itself establishing a fixed minimum rate based on what the legislature regards as the necessary cost of proper living—or they may be flexible, the law creating administrative machinery for establishing the minimum rate. Only Arizona, Porto Rico, South Dakota, and Utah have passed inflexible laws. They have been largely ineffective since the rates cannot be changed as economic conditions vary except by act of the legislature. The original rate has been revised only by Arizona. The flexible laws are usually thought of in connection with any discussion of minimum wage. Two types of such laws were passed. In Arkansas, California, Colorado, the District of Columbia, Kansas, Minnesota, North Dakota, Oregon, Texas, Washington, and Wisconsin, when the administrative body set a wage rate it had the force of law. In Massachusetts and Nebraska the rate was recommended only, and had to be enforced by pressure of public opinion.

Minimum Wage

Minimum wage laws have aroused a great deal of opposition and have been subject to constant attack in legislatures and the courts. Legislatures have generally given greatly inadequate appropriations. Probably the most harmful legislative action has been the subordination of minimum wage laws to other labor laws, by doing away with the minimum wage commissions created in most states and assigning administration and enforcement to agencies already occupied with other duties. Three states—Nebraska, Texas, and Utah—have repealed their laws, although Utah did not take this step until adverse decisions by the United States Supreme Court had made the position of all minimum wage legislation extremely dubious. Wisconsin in 1925 established the negative rule that "no wage paid . . . shall be oppressive," an attempt to meet constitutional objections to the positive requirement of the state's original statute.

From the first enactment of minimum wage laws the claim was made that they interfered with the freedom of contract guaranteed by the fifth and fourteenth amendments to the federal constitution. In a case from Oregon (243 U. S. 629) the United States Supreme Court in 1917 divided four to four, and thus a decision of the State Supreme Court, which had upheld the law, was allowed to stand. In 1923, however, the United States Supreme Court heard a case arising from the District of Columbia and held the law unconstitutional (261 U. S. 525). On the basis of this decision the laws of Arizona, Arkansas, Kansas, and Porto Rico, and the original Wisconsin statute have been declared unconstitutional. The statutes of California, Minnesota, North Dakota, Oregon, South Dakota, and Washington have not been tested, but the Minnesota Attorney General has given an opinion that the Minnesota law is unconstitutional for adult women. In Massachusetts alone, where the law is non-mandatory, the highest state court has held it constitutional (1924), and at present only Massachusetts issues new decrees. In the remaining states only minors remain assured of minimum wage protection. Supported by favorable public opinion, however, California, North Dakota, Oregon, Washington, and Wisconsin are meeting with considerable success in enforcing rates for women and minors set before the adverse court decisions. Minnesota is enforcing such a rate for minors.

The methods by which minimum wage laws functioned and their accomplishments still remain of interest. Each of the flexible laws created machinery for establishing minimum rates for women and minors in practically all the industries and occupations in its state, and for varying these rates as the cost of living changed. The process in all cases was roughly the same. A commission was created to administer the law; or administration was assigned to an existing state body. Usually this commission was composed of persons representing employers, employes, and the public. Investigations were conducted to ascertain whether the wages paid to a considerable number of women workers were less than was necessary to maintain the women in health and promote their welfare. A cost-of-living study usually was considered indispensable. If any considerable number of women were earning wages below the cost of living level, the commission itself, or a wage board it appointed, held a series of meetings to determine what the rate should be, and after a tentative rate was decided upon held a public hearing before announcing its decree. The sum finally determined became the lowest rate of pay lawful for a full-time woman worker. The decree also usually fixed rates for learners, the length of the learning period, and rates for minors. Sometimes it established rates for piece workers, part-time workers, and other miscellaneous groups. The rates for adults working full time were to be based on the necessary cost of proper living, and except in Massachusetts and Nebraska, the financial condition of the industry was not to be taken into consideration. In practice rates in all states

were a compromise between the different interested groups represented on the wage boards and commissions.

With the exception of Colorado and Nebraska, all states that passed minimum wage laws set rates eventually for one or more industries or occupations. California, Minnesota, North Dakota, Oregon, Washington, and Wisconsin covered at some one period every gainfully employed woman to whom it was practical to apply a decree. Kansas, Massachusetts, Texas, and the District of Columbia covered a substantial proportion. The rates varied greatly from state to state and even showed considerable variation within a state. Due to the great rise in the cost of living while the laws were in force, decrees needed constant revision, and when this was not done, the rates lagged far behind the price level.

What these minimum wage decrees accomplished must be stated guardedly, since they operated for the most part in the economic uncertainty of a war and post-war period, and their effectiveness was destroyed by the courts just as a more stable price period began. Evidence of widespread injury to industries affected by decrees is totally lacking. It seems certain that even the rates which failed to meet the cost of living improved the condition of the most submerged workers; and that rates set at high levels affected similarly the majority of workers in the industry to which they were applied. It also seems undoubtedly true that the laws would have been much more effective if they had had larger appropriations, more careful administration, and a longer, less troubled period of operation.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year showed some slight minimum wage activity. California amended its law to require employers to keep more careful records, issued a revised decree, and secured a somewhat increased appropriation. Massachusetts issued a decree in new industry, and bills were introduced but not passed by its legislature to make the woman Assistant Commissioner of Labor a member of the Minimum Wage Board as well as its executive officer, and to increase the number of minimum wage inspectors. During the year also Utah repealed its inflexible minimum wage law.

CONSULT: Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *List of References on Minimum Wage for Women in the United States and Canada* (Bulletin No. 42), 1925, and *Development of Minimum-Wage Laws in the United States 1912 to 1927* (Bulletin No. 61), 1928; National Consumers' League (compiler): *The Supreme Court and Minimum-Wage Legislation*, 1925; biennial reports of the Industrial Welfare Division of the California Department of Industrial Relations; and annual reports of the Division of Minimum Wage in the Massachusetts Department of Labor and Industries.

MILDRED J. GORDON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 590.

MORBIDITY STATISTICS. *See* VITAL AND HEALTH STATISTICS.

MORMON SOCIAL WORK. The church of Jesus Christ of the Latter Day Saints, commonly known as the "Mormon" church, is a centralized organization which accepts responsibility for the material as well as the spiritual welfare of its members. The social work of the church—carried on by its bishops who administer funds for relief and by auxiliary organizations of several different kinds—is extensive.

One of the most important of the several auxiliary organizations is the National Woman's Relief Society. This had its beginning in 1842, when the first local society was formed in Nauvoo, Ill. It is, perhaps, the oldest women's organization in this country which has had a continuous history. Its objective was, and is, "to care for the poor, minister to the sick, comfort the sorrowing, correct the morals, and strengthen the virtues of the community." In 1892 the present national organization was incorporated. The Society is one of the charter organizations

of the National Council of Women of the United States, and for many years has been a member of the National Conference of Social Work. The Society's organization follows that of the church of which there are 104 geographical divisions, known as "stakes," and 28 missions. Both stakes and missions are composed of 1,462 subdivisions known as wards and branches. The Society's total membership is nearly 65,000.

A general board has supervision of the work of the Society in the stakes, wards, and branches. All aid given by the church is dispensed by ward bishops and by presidents of ward societies. Funds for the purpose are obtained from fast offerings, Relief Society aid, and whenever necessary by requisition on the tithing fund. To assure the most effective results, meetings are held with the ward bishops and the Relief Society presidents as often as necessary, where joint consideration of all recommendations may be had and a definite policy outlined. Whenever conditions permit, the bishop delegates the distribution of aid to the officers of the ward relief society. All cases are held in strict confidence between the bishops and the relief society officers. During 1928 the amount spent for such purposes was $100,836.

The Society's relief work is almost entirely in the hands of volunteers. In addition to the ward presidents there is a corps of volunteer workers known as visiting teachers, or district visitors—a service which was inaugurated in the very early years of the organization. These visiting teachers are responsible for discovering instances of sickness or distress and reporting them to the president. The families in each ward are grouped into districts of 12, and two teachers, visiting together, are responsible for each district. Visits are made to all families irrespective of station or wealth. During 1928 these visits numbered 700,131.

The general board of the Society has endeavored to improve the standards of its volunteer workers by giving branch presidents and district teachers an insight into the fundamental problems of constructive family welfare work. A uniform record book is provided for all wards and branches of the Society, giving detailed instructions as to the duties of officers and the methods to be followed in keeping accurate records of all organization work, including the giving of relief. A uniform course of study, including literature, theology, and social service, is given in each branch at the weekly meetings. A series of outlined lessons in social service has been prepared for each year under the direction of the general board and published in the Relief Society Magazine. Each society discusses the material, once a month, under the leadership of one of its own members. Social service institutes have also been conducted under the auspices of the general board in different localities whenever requested.

A most important factor of the Society's work is its Social Service Department, established 11 years ago. This operates only in Salt Lake City, and in that area supplements the work carried on independently by the ward societies. At the request of the ward bishops, or ward presidents, cases are investigated by trained workers of the department and definite recommendations are made. Cases are also referred by other social agencies or individuals. In addition the department serves as a laboratory for experimental work. It is used by the University of Utah for field training in social case work, credit being given for the work thus taken.

CONSULT: Annual Reports of the National Woman's Relief Society and issues of its periodical, the *Relief Society Magazine*.

JULIA A. F. LUND

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22.

MOTHERS' AID has come to be the term most commonly applied to the form of public aid to children in their own homes which in the earlier laws authorizing such aid was called "mothers' pensions," "funds to parents," "mothers' compensation," "widows' pensions," "mothers' allowances," and "mothers' assistance."

Mothers' Aid

Mothers' aid is public outdoor relief in that aid is provided from public funds—usually town, city, or county—and is administered by a public agency. Its origin has, however, set it apart from the earlier forms of public relief and in most localities it has developed entirely independently of "poor relief" and has reached a very much higher plane. It is only recently that special emphasis has been placed on the family welfare features of mothers' aid, though it has long been recognized that good administration of this assistance calls for the application of case work principles which have been developed in the charity organization movement. Increasingly there is coming a recognition of the fact that public agencies administering mothers' aid should be equipped with the same quality of service that is found in the best of the private family welfare societies.

Although, as has been stated, mothers' aid is essentially a form of family welfare work, it originated through the activity of organizations primarily concerned with child welfare. The White House Conference on Dependent Children, held in 1909, the keynote of which was home care for dependent children, urged that children should wherever possible be kept in their own homes through aid to dependent mothers. It recommended that such aid should not be from public funds, but should be administered by private charitable agencies. Some family welfare agencies had already adopted this principle, providing for families of widowed mothers regular grants and developing methods which later became the best practice in the administration of mothers' aid.

History and Present Status. The first mothers' pension law, which was enacted in Missouri in 1911 and applied only to Jackson County, was inspired by a fraternal order. The first state-wide law was enacted in Illinois in the same year. Within the first 10 years mothers' aid laws had been passed in 41 states. In 1930 all the states in the Union had such laws with the exception of Alabama, Georgia, New Mexico, and South Carolina. In these four states the need is recognized, and enactment of mothers' aid laws will apparently come as soon as methods of adequate financing and administration have been worked out. In three of these states certain institutions for dependent children have undertaken more or less extensive aid to children in their own homes, so that the demonstration of mothers' aid is already under way.

Many of the earlier laws limited the aid to children of widows, but at present the application of the law is thus restricted in only five of the 44 states. In 27 states and the District of Columbia aid may be given to any mother with dependent children or to a mother whose husband is dead, deserting, divorced, totally incapacitated (physically or mentally), in prison, or in an institution for the insane, feeble-minded, or epileptic. In a few states assistance may be given to children who are in the custody of relatives or guardians, and in six it may be granted to expectant mothers.

Similarly, the legal limitations on the ages under which children may be granted aid have been expanded year after year. In only nine states is aid now limited in general to children under 14 years. Four states may grant aid up to 15 years; 28 and the District of Columbia to 16 years; two to 17 years; and one to 18 years. However, because of inadequate appropriations, the practice has not reached the same high standard, although the trend is toward granting aid not only to children who are prohibited by education or child labor laws from entering gainful employment, but toward continuing the assistance so that children who can profit by schooling may receive it until they are at least 16 years of age.

More and more the states are providing for assistance according to the needs of the family, with no limitations of grants specified in the law. However, grants are still limited by law in 25 states to $50 or less for a family with three children. Moreover, the grants actually made are in many instances

still more inadequate. There has been steady improvement in the situation through the broadening of legal provisions and larger appropriations. In 10 states and the District of Columbia no maximum amount of grant per child or per family is specified, and the law either definitely provides or it is implied that the budget method of ascertaining the resources and needs of the family shall be used.

At the present time mothers' aid administration is in the court having juvenile jurisdiction in 17 states. In 13 states the county board administering poor relief also administers mothers' aid. This may in general be said to result in the poorest grade of work, although there are a few notable exceptions. In four states—New York, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Indiana, and provided by law in Kentucky—administration is under a special county or city board which has the sole function of administering mothers' aid or includes this with a broader child-caring program. In Maine, Massachusetts, and California administration is by a state board in combination with a local agency; and in New Hampshire, Vermont, New Jersey, Connecticut, Delaware, and Arizona the state is the administrative agency, with more or less collaboration by local officials.

It is impossible in the absence of recent adequate statistics on the number of children cared for in their own homes, or the numbers provided for by institutions and agencies, to make a definite comparison; but it is safe to say that the number of children granted aid in their own homes at the present time exceeds 200,000, and that at least $30,000,000 a year is expended for mothers' aid. In contrast with this the United States Census Bureau reported for February 1, 1923, a total of 218,523 dependent children in the care of institutions and agencies. Because of inadequacies of the census returns it is probable that the total number of children provided for in this way lies somewhere between 250,000 and 300,000, approximately two-thirds of them being cared for in institutions and one-third in foster homes.

Growth in the number of children provided for in their own homes is so rapid that it is more than likely that the number who are at this time beneficiaries of mothers' aid is considerably in excess of the number provided for away from their own homes. Undoubtedly the increase of this public provision for the care of children in their own homes has tended to reduce the populations of institutions very considerably. The most important indication, however, of the meaning of mothers' aid is found in the fact that so large a number of children—the greater proportion of whom would in all probability not have been provided for away from their own homes—have been given aid which has made it possible for the home to be maintained on a higher level, increasing the opportunities for education and lessening the need for labor at an early age.

Developments and Events, 1929. Radical changes in mothers' aid laws were made during the year in Wisconsin (Ch. 439) and Florida (Ch. 13,759), and Maryland (Ch. 401) enacted a law with state-wide application to replace the limited law of 1920. More or less important changes were made in 10 other states—Delaware (Ch. 251), Illinois (H. B. 261), Iowa (Ch. 92), Maine (Ch. 204), Michigan (Ch. 33), Minnesota (Ch. 101), Nevada (Ch. 121), New Hampshire (Ch. 145), New York (Ch. 347), and Oregon (Ch. 45). The important changes will be discussed topically in order to show the trends.

(1) Persons to Whom Aid May Be Given. Delaware and Wisconsin increased, from 14 to 16 years, the age of children who may be granted aid, with the provision in Wisconsin that the court may grant aid for minors over 16 who are incapacitated for work because of mental or physical disability.

Wisconsin added stepmothers to the list of persons to whom aid may be given, and incorporated a provision permitting "any woman with whom a child, dependent on the public for support, is living and receiving

family care under an arrangement likely to continue for one year or more" to receive aid on the same conditions as a mother. This apparently is intended to apply to children placed with relatives or in boarding homes for long-time care. Unless it is used with great discretion it may mean a departure from that emphasis on the giving of care in the child's own home which is the fundamental principle of mothers' aid. In this case, however, the provision represents an improvement in the Wisconsin law which heretofore permitted aid to be given to other persons "having custody and care of the child"—a phrase which was in some quarters interpreted to include institutions.

Wisconsin also increased the length of time over which desertion or imprisonment must have continued from three months to one year, and the provision in regard to physical or mental incapacity of the father was modified to permit aid if the disability is likely to continue for one year or more, in the opinion of a competent physician; previously aid could be granted only in case of permanent incapacity.

In Florida the length of required residence in the state was changed from one year to two years and the definitions of economic and home conditions were revised. The law provides that no aid shall be given for children of school age except on the monthly certificate of the principal or head of the school that the child has regularly attended school during the month or has been duly excused. This provision appears to limit aid to months in which school is in session.

The New York law was amended to require a mother to have declared her intention to become a citizen of the United States if her husband was not a citizen. Minnesota amended its law by allowing the beneficiary to possess not more than $500, in lieu of real estate, if all but $100 is deposited in trust and the income therefrom used for subsistence.

The California State Department of Social Welfare made some changes in rulings as to the amount of property which may be held by persons eligible for state aid given for the support of needy half-orphans. The present purchase price of a house owned by a recipient of aid may not exceed $5,000, and there may not be a mortgage in excess of $3,000. If there is other property, money in the bank may not exceed $250, otherwise $500.

(2) Limitation of Grants. Perhaps the most significant of the changes in mothers' pension laws recommended by the Wisconsin Children's Code Committee and enacted by the legislature during the year was the adoption of the budget principle in place of legally defined maximum grants. The amount of aid, previously limited by law to a maximum of $15 for the first child and $10 for each additional child, is under the new law to be determined by a budget for each family, established on the basis of its necessary expenses and its possible income from all other sources. The family budget is to be based on a standard budget worked out annually by the judge and the county board or a committee designated by it, or, if the board does not act, by the judge alone. After the passage of this law the Juvenile Court of Milwaukee County reviewed the cases on its active list so far as possible to revise the grants according to budgeted needs and resources. In the first six months 371 cases were reviewed, with resulting increases of allowances for 142 families and with 92 other families given additional fuel. One of the immediate results of the revision of aid by the court was the discontinuance of supplementary aid by family welfare societies which had previously, in a considerable number of cases, made up the difference between the budget of the family and the limited amount allowed by the court.

The new Maryland law also incorporates this important policy. Aid may be granted in sums deemed sufficient to enable a mother to support and educate her children, leaving it to the discretion of the county commissioners—or in Baltimore of the supervisors of city charities—to give relief in accordance with the needs of the family and the available appropriation. The Oregon law was amended to raise the maximum grant for one child

from $15 to $20, and for each additional child from $10 to $16. The maximum for a family was raised from $60 to $75.

California, in common with a number of other states and localities, has been working on regulations concerning insurance. Under rulings of the Department of Social Welfare, given during the year, no family in receipt of aid may carry insurance for which the premiums exceed $4.00 a month. Other new rulings required sons or daughters over 21 years to contribute one-half of their earnings; those between 18 and 21 years two-thirds; and children between 16 and 18 all that they earn, the mother allowing a reasonable amount for recreation.

(3) Local Administration. Like the earlier legislation of Minnesota, the new Wisconsin law provides that the courts may utilize the services of county child welfare boards for investigation or supervision. With the further development of these public agencies it is inevitable that administration of mothers' aid will gradually be transferred from the courts to such agencies, and will be better coordinated with other family welfare and child welfare service under public auspices. Under the earlier law in Florida the county commissioners granted aid on the recommendation of the County Board of Public Instruction. Under the new law responsibility is placed solely upon the county commissioners.

(4) Source of Funds. The new Maryland law, which went into effect on January 1, 1930, requires one-fourth of one per cent on each $100 of assessable property to be levied for the purpose of mothers' relief. The city of Baltimore immediately put the law into operation. Under the tax provision the amount available for Baltimore is $29,909. Although the funds thus made available represent only a fraction of the amounts found necessary in other large cities, the beginning made is no less notable, since it appears to be the first step toward adequate provision. Iowa amended its law to provide that county boards of supervisors may levy an annual tax not exceeding one mill in counties having populations of 80,000 or more, instead of 140,000 or more as formerly. Other changes in sources of funds relate to state appropriations and will be discussed under the heading that follows.

(5) State Funds and Supervision. A number of important changes were made in regard to the relation of state departments to local administration. Illinois appropriated $500,000 for two years to reimburse counties up to 50 per cent of the amount they expend on mothers' pensions, provided 50 per cent or more of the existing need has been met by the county. The State Department of Public Welfare is to make rules and regulations and approve payments to the counties.

In Florida the State Board of Public Welfare, State Board of Public Instruction, and State Board of Health are to cooperate with local agencies in investigating applications. The Board of Public Welfare is to supply forms for uniform schedules to be used in securing data, and copies of investigations are to be filed in its office.

Maine changed its method of paying its share of one-half of the total expenditure by providing that the state instead of the towns shall pay allowances in the first instance, being reimbursed by the towns for mothers so aided who have legal settlement in the towns, the state paying the full amount for unsettled cases.

New Hampshire transferred administration from the State Board of Education to the State Board of Public Welfare, and provided that the entire expense is to be met by state appropriation. Formerly, local costs of administration were paid from local funds, the cost of the aid and state supervision being met by the state.

Wisconsin provided for reimbursement from state funds for the entire amount of aid granted by counties for children who have no legal settlement in the county. After this has been deducted from the fund made available by the state, counties may be reimbursed up to one-third of their expenditure for aid. However, the very limited state

appropriation for this purpose permits only a small part of the contemplated refund.

Fifty-seven of the 67 counties of Pennsylvania are granting mothers' assistance and receiving state funds equal to the amounts expended by the counties. The legislature in 1929 adopted a new method of allocation which allows for distribution of the funds to counties in accordance with the number of families on the active and waiting lists and the average grant per family in each county, each county being given an appropriation in accordance with its administrative needs instead of on a population basis as previously.

In Virginia an effort was made to secure the enactment of a law providing for a state appropriation for the purpose of sharing the expense of mothers' aid with the counties. Because of tax emergencies this failed of passage.

(6) Increased Appropriations and Service. Reports from large cities and counties and from several states indicate marked progress during the year in the administration of mothers' aid. Of 20 cities and counties only three reported decreased appropriations. In some instances increased funds were required to take care of emergencies caused by illness or economic conditions or were due to growth in the population. But in general there appears to have been a notable advance in aid and service.

The Supervisor of Boards of Child Welfare of the New York State Department of Social Welfare reported that 41 of the 96 boards of child welfare increased expenditures for allowances during 1929. The amount expended for allowances represented an increase of 5 per cent over 1928 and 17 per cent over 1927.

Pennsylvania makes an appropriation to be apportioned among the counties that have accepted the provisions of the act and have apportioned an equal sum. The General Assembly made an appropriation of $2,750,000 for the biennium June 1, 1929, to May 31, 1931. This was the same as the 1927–1928 appropriation, which represented an increase of $1,000,000 over that of the previous biennium. Before the increase was made available, 3,481 families with 11,826 children under 16 years of age were beneficiaries of the fund and 2,464 families were on the waiting lists. On June 1, 1929, 5,594 families with 18,091 children under 16 years of age were receiving aid and 1,163 families were reported on the waiting lists. The effect of the increased appropriation is illustrated by the change in the Philadelphia situation. The appropriation for June 1, 1929, to May 31, 1930, is $623,647, as compared with $411,360 for the year ending May 31, 1926. In February, 1930, there were 1,222 families on the active payroll, as against 787 in the same month in 1926. In some of the largest counties of Pennsylvania the amount available for 1930 is less than in 1928, due to the change in the method of allocating the state's funds which has already been referred to.

The Commissioner of the Florida State Board of Public Welfare reported in March, 1930, that one county had employed a trained welfare worker since the amended law became effective in that state. In other counties school nurses have been appointed. The Kentucky Legislature enacted a mothers' aid law in 1928, but none of the counties has taken advantage of it. Mothers' aid work has been developed, however, in Jefferson County independently of the law. In July, 1928, the Fiscal Court of the County appropriated a fund of $42,000 to the Louisville and Jefferson County Children's Home to be administered for family relief or mothers' aid. In January, 1928, the fund was increased to $64,000, and for 1930 the amount available is $75,000.

In Denver County, Colo., $54,000 was provided through a one-eighth of a mill tax levy. To this amount the City Council added an appropriation of $57,000, and also appropriated $5,500 for the use of maternity benefit applicants. The families aided vary from 180 to 200 a month. During the past 11 years appropriations have increased from $17,000 to $116,000 a year. The Mothers' Allowance Department of the

Juvenile Court of Jackson County (Kansas City), Mo., received a larger appropriation and additional staff members were added. Wayne County (Detroit), Mich., increased its appropriation for mothers' aid by $80,000 over the amount expended the previous year. In 1929 the number of families aided was 1,457 and in 1928, 1,390. An increase of $85,000 was also made in Cuyahoga County (Cleveland), Ohio. The budget was $465,000 with 783 families aided, as against $385,000 and 643 families in 1928. Hamilton County (Cincinnati), Ohio, reported a decrease in the number of families granted aid in spite of an additional appropriation, for the very significant reason that the maximum allowance permitted by law was granted to all families where needed. Mention has been made of the revision of grants in Milwaukee County following the change in the Wisconsin law which substituted the budget principle for the grants limited by law.

Reduction in the need for supplementary public and private relief agencies was attained in several communities, of which Milwaukee is perhaps the most notable. Louisiana has so far made little provision for mothers' aid. In order to show the state that more is needed, the Family Service Society of New Orleans spent half of its relief fund for widows' families in that city. The results obtained were used as the basis of publicity and education.

The most noteworthy advance in the quality of case work during the year was in the development of standards for family budgets and in attention given to nutrition problems. Several communities organized case committees which include representatives of other agencies. Increasing emphasis was placed on the education of mothers through monthly talks on child training, health and nutrition problems, and housekeeping. These meetings have recreational as well as educational features.

The benefits of public aid for dependent children in their own homes have been demonstrated in a large number of communities. More and more adequate appropriations have been made as the needs have been recognized, and case work principles are being applied increasingly. But it is necessary to record the fact that many localities and some entire states have as yet made little progress in this field. In addition to the four states which have no mothers' aid laws, at least 17 or 18 are making very little use of the laws which they have. Some progress has been made during the past year in two or three of the backward states. The most important need is still for more adequate application of the principle that has been written into the statute books.

CONSULT: Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *A Tabular Summary of State Laws Relating to Public Aid to Children in Their Own Homes in Effect January 1, 1929, and Text of the Laws of Certain States* (Chart No. 3), 1929; Lundberg, Emma O.: *Public Aid to Mothers with Dependent Children, Extent and Fundamental Principles* (United States Children's Bureau, Publication No. 162, revised), 1928, and "Progress of Mothers' Aid Administration," in the *Social Service Review*, September, 1928; Nesbitt, Florence: *Standards of Public Aid to Children in Their Own Homes* (United States Children's Bureau, Publication No. 118), 1923, and Bogue, Mary F.: *Administration of Mothers' Aid in Ten Localities with Special Reference to Health, Housing, Education, and Recreation* (United States Children's Bureau, Publication No. 184), 1928; Preston, Frank D.: *Outline of Educational Methods and Suggestions for Local Campaigns*—Prepared for the use of Mothers' Assistance Trustees, in the Educational and Legislative Campaign in Behalf of the Mothers' Assistance Fund of Pennsylvania, 1926–1927 (Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania), 1926; Juvenile and Domestic Relations Court of Hamilton County, Ohio: *Changing Concepts* (pages 59–73, by Ruth M. Jones on "Mothers' Pensions"), 1929; and annual and special reports of agencies administering mothers' aid laws, such as the Board of Child Welfare, New York City; the Erie County (N. Y.) Board of Child Welfare; and the Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare, Mothers' Assistance Fund.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 590.

MOTHERS' PENSIONS OR ALLOWANCES. *See* MOTHERS' AID.

MOTION PICTURES. No other form of commercial amusement seems to attract so much critical attention as motion pictures. Welfare organizations, religious bodies, and educators express much concern about them because of their possible effect on children. Although film stories and their treatment are primarily for adult audiences, most of the discussions concerning them are with the child audience in mind. This makes at once for widely divergent views. Since the motion picture industry is a business (the fourth largest in the United States) it must receive adequate financial returns on its product or cease to exist. The finer types of pictures, as a rule, are not the ones that are most profitable. Herein lies a very real difficulty in the promotion of better films.

Present Status. There are two schools of thought on this subject; one encourages the production of films of higher dramatic, artistic, and moral values; the other seeks to prevent the showing of those that fall below certain indefinitely prescribed standards. The latter is censorship; the former is constructive cooperation. Constructive public interest has taken form in the National Board of Review of Motion Pictures, its Better Films National Council, its Exceptional Photoplays Committee, the National Indorsers of Photoplays, the Film Bureau, National Motion Pictures League, and the motion picture reviewing and reporting committees of the General Federation of Women's Clubs, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Daughters of the American Revolution, International Federation of Catholic Alumnae, National League of American Pen Women, Young Men's Christian Association, National Catholic Welfare Conference, American Library Association, American Association of University Women, Association of Junior Leagues of America, and the Boy Scouts of America. Annotated lists of recent productions are prepared and classified as to their suitability for different kinds of audiences. Special attention is given to pictures suitable for use in children's programs which many local "better films" committees are providing. The cooperation of the motion picture exhibitors is usually secured in arranging Saturday morning programs for children and "family programs" at other times during the week. There is an increasing demand for more of these special occasions.

At a National Motion Picture Conference held in September, 1929, under the auspices of the Public Relations Department of the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Inc., three subcommittees were appointed: (1) To "select and classify motion pictures of especial interest to children and to suggest to the industry a list of such films which should be constantly available"; (2) to study and report upon "the use of motion pictures in religious education"; and (3) to study the work of local better films committees, and to compile "a community motion picture text book" as an aid to local groups seeking to adapt motion pictures to the needs and interests of their respective communities. The reports of these three committees have been published, and are available without charge on application to the New York City office of the organization mentioned.

Many states and cities have laws and ordinances designed to protect the public from indecent or repulsive exhibitions or those that tend to incite to crime. Purveyors of amusements who violate these regulations are liable to fine, imprisonment, and the canceling of their licenses. The effectiveness of such legislation depends upon complaint being made of alleged violations and successful prosecution in the courts. Those who consider that this is not enough protection argue that complaints are not likely to be made and that conviction with adequate penalty seldom results. Furthermore, it is contended that the harm has already been done, and that at best only a warning against future offenses can be hoped for.

Some of those who doubt the effectiveness of citizen agencies working constructively with producers, distributors, and exhibitors, and who look upon laws against improper exhibitions as slight protection, turn to some form of official censorship. Censorship boards exist in New York, Pennsylvania, Ohio, Maryland, Virginia, and Kansas. A number of cities exercise some special form of motion picture control either by the police or the licensing agency, or in a few instances by a semi-official citizens' reviewing committee. The Federal Motion Picture Council in America favors federal supervision of motion picture production and trade practices.

State laws and city ordinances of a quite different character from those already mentioned make it a misdemeanor for an exhibitor to admit children unless accompanied by parent or guardian. The upper age limit varies from thirteen to sixteen. The chief object in this legislation is to protect the children from physical hazards such as fire and panic, and from the advances of designing persons in the dimly lighted theater. In some cases the law allows the admission of unaccompanied children if a licensed matron is employed by the exhibitor and the children are seated in a section separate from the adults. These laws have not been very successful, for unaccompanied children, with the admission money in their hands, solicit strangers to purchase tickets for them and to accompany them into the theater. The six states which have laws of one type or another for the regulation of children's attendance at motion picture exhibitions are: Connecticut, Massachusetts, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. Many cities also have ordinances of this kind.

A new influence on the character of motion picture production has come through the participation of banks and an enlarged body of stockholders in the financing of the industry. Financiers realize that it is good business to see that the product of the motion picture companies meets with public favor, and that in the long run the industry will benefit by consistently improving the character of its pictures, even though some of them may not bring as great box-office receipts as the more sensational types.

One of the greatest menaces to the motion picture industry is the irresponsible producer who makes one or two lurid pictures, takes whatever quick profits he can, and then goes out of business. This practice is being fought by the Motion Picture Producers and Distributors of America, Inc., whose affiliated companies have put their label upon all their products so that responsibility for any picture can be readily and definitely placed. This corporation has established a Public Relations Department, which seeks frank criticism of its pictures and of the methods used in their advertising and exhibition. These criticisms, favorable and unfavorable, are referred officially and emphatically to the producing studios as a guide for future productions.

The use of motion pictures by schools and churches is increasing rapidly, and special facilities for the production of films for this service are being developed. Among these are the Educational Department of the Eastman Kodak Company, the University Film Foundation at Harvard, and the Religious Motion Picture Foundation. Several colleges have established special courses for training in motion picture production.

The taking and projecting of motion pictures by amateurs, as a form of recreation, has assumed such proportions that an international association has been organized under the name of the Amateur Cinema League. It is estimated that there are approximately 135,000 amateur motion picture camera users in the United States. Thus the movies have taken a prominent place in active as well as in passive recreation.

CONSULT: Ellis and Thornborough: *Motion Pictures in Education—A Practical Handbook for Users of Visual Aids*, 1923; Freeman, Frank N. and others: *Visual Education*, 1924; Holmes, Joseph L.: "Anti-Social Attitudes and the Motion Pictures," in *National Board of Review Magazine*, March, 1930; King and Tichenor

(editors): "The Motion Picture in Its Economic and Social Aspects" (a series of 29 articles), in *The Annals of the American Academy*, November, 1926; Mitchell, A. M.: *Children and Movies*, 1929; National [English] Council of Public Morals: *The Cinema in Education*—Being the report of the psychological investigation conducted by special subcommittees appointed by the Cinema Commission of Enquiry established by the National Council of Public Morals (edited by Sir James Marchant), 1925; Seabury, Wm. M.: *The Public and the Motion Picture Industry*, 1926; and Seldes, Gilbert V.: *An Hour with the Movies and the Talkies*, 1929.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 590.

MOUTH HYGIENE, as now understood, embraces several fields of endeavor: Instruction in the principles and practice of mouth hygiene by the dental hygienist; the teaching of mouth hygiene in public schools; the instruction of lay groups—such as Rotary or Kiwanis Clubs, and Parent-Teacher Associations—by lecture methods; and prophylactic treatment given by the dentist and hygienist in schools, industrial organizations, and private dental practice.

At least 95 per cent of the children of school age in the United States are in need of dental treatment. A community mouth health program takes into account the prospective mother, her diet and mouth hygiene during pregnancy; the preschool child, its diet and habits—such as thumb sucking and mouth breathing—and the care of its temporary teeth; the school child, with attention to regular dental care, periodic cleansing of the teeth, methods of preserving dental health, and training in the home care of the teeth as a form of training for parenthood. The instruction of parents is also essential in order to establish the importance of mouth hygiene, and to win their support for any clinics organized to care for those otherwise unable to obtain dental treatment.

History and Present Status. The movement to further mouth hygiene had its inception in the days following Hunter's declaration that the teeth may be a primary source of focal infection. The conception that young women may be trained as dental hygienists is attributed to Dr. A. C. Fones, who in 1915 established the first training school for dental hygienists to prepare them for service in the public schools of Bridgeport. The mouth hygiene movement has now become world-wide and mouth hygiene itself is an accepted branch of public health. As such it is promoted by social organizations, schools, and industry.

That the movement has captured the imagination of the public is manifested by the extent and influence of dental clinics in various communities, such as those established by philanthropists in Boston and Rochester, N. Y., to care solely for children under 16 years of age. There is a noticeable increase in the number of dental clinics for adults which are supported by local benefactors, or by dental societies, community chests, or fraternal groups. These serve as restorative rather than preventive agencies. The number of hospitals having dental internes is also increasing rapidly, and the sentiment of dental students is increasingly in favor of accepting institutional postgraduate training. In most state institutions it is the practice to have dental internes.

One of the most important recent advances is the inclusion of a dentist, to direct mouth hygiene activities, in the Board of Health or the Board of Education in some 20 states and in an increasing number of municipalities, and the licensing of dental hygienists to practice prophylaxis, or at least to teach mouth hygiene in about the same number of states. The state departments in these states have the teaching of mouth hygiene under their supervision and are furthering the work, as opportunity affords, in cooperation with local authorities. In some states, on the other hand, the mouth hygiene movement was originally sponsored by local

groups, and from small beginnings has spread until it embraces considerable areas.

Several national agencies have as their primary purpose the propagation of mouth health principles; among these are the American Mouth Health Association, Dental Educational Council of America, and the International Dental Health Foundation for Children. Other health agencies are interested in mouth hygiene because the condition of the teeth affects the success or failure of their efforts along other lines. Such are the United States Public Health Service, American Child Health Association, National Tuberculosis Association, and the American Medical Association.

Much space has been given of late to articles on mouth hygiene in outstanding magazines and newspapers, written by well-known practitioners or groups in the dental profession and sponsored by reputable local organizations. Leading manufacturers' and producers' associations, such as the National Dairy Council, have also included mouth health in their educational publicity; and individual firms have prepared and distributed posters and charts and have prepared lectures for the use of health workers. Business concerns that preach mouth health include large food corporations, dentifrice and X-ray equipment manufacturers, and life insurance companies. These all benefit indirectly from their propaganda for mouth health and preventive dentistry. Practically everyone who reads or listens to the radio has received some information as to the necessity for mouth hygiene.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year there was a general advance in the mouth hygiene movement, particularly in the inclusion of dentists on the state boards of education and health, the more general acceptance of the dental hygienist as a dental health teacher, and a more general recognition of the value of prophylaxis in relation to the health of the school child, his training, habits, and scholarship. The most significant event of the year was the active campaign which commercial institutions carried on in accordance with the best professional ethics to popularize mouth hygiene through printed advertisement and radio broadcasting. The interest shown by the professional groups in disseminating information on this subject, particularly at their state and national meetings, was also marked. A further noticeable development was the inclusion of good motion picture films relating to mouth hygiene in the health series of a prominent educational film library, and the increasing use of such films in public schools.

During 1929 announcement was made of the building of large dental clinics for New York City, Chicago, and Providence, and the Children's Fund of Michigan announced that one of its aims would be the promotion of mouth health programs. The establishment of research along purely dental lines in the leading medical schools by the Rockefeller Foundation was an encouraging indication that mouth hygiene had been accepted as a factor in the public health field. Progress was also made during the year in research relating to the prevention of dental decay by means of bacterial control and dietary measures.

CONSULT: Burkhart, H. J.: *Care of Mouth and Teeth*, 1928; "The Dental Hygienist as an Educator," in *Dental Items of Interest*, August, 1927; Owre, Alfred: "Give Your Teeth a Chance," in *Woman's Home Companion*, July, 1930; issues of *Journal of American Dental Association* (Department on Dental Health Education); and Black, A. D.: *Index to Dental Periodical Literature*.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 590.

MUSIC. The non-commercial musical activities commonly promoted for their recreational and cultural value to the performers are choruses, orchestras, bands; light opera; music weeks, music festivals and music in pageants and plays; contests; piano classes;

singing games, dances, and acting songs; informal cultural singing in schools, playgrounds, settlements, camps, and elsewhere, and what is usually regarded as community singing, often only social in purpose; toy instrument orchestras; harmonica bands and ukelele groups; and orchestras of instruments made by the players themselves.

There is less community singing now than during the war, but it is still much in evidence at meetings where group spirit is felt or desired. The total number of persons engaged in the other activities mentioned is greater in proportion to the population than ever before. Orchestras and bands of school organizations show the most increase. The greatest amount of non-commercial musical activity is in the middle western states, with the North Atlantic and Pacific Coast cities not far behind. The largest proportionate gain, though the total is still comparatively small, has probably been made in the South, from the Atlantic to Pacific, with North Carolina and Oklahoma in the lead.

These activities are fostered by public day schools and evening schools, by colleges, conservatories, music teachers and leaders, churches, homes, municipal departments of recreation, settlements, clubs and lodges of all kinds, industries, and music lovers generally. The talking motion picture has brought about renewed efforts to have singing by theater audiences. The patronage of paid professional concerts has decreased about one-third since 1928, but attendance at good free concerts, especially if held outdoors, is as great as ever. The number of children attending concerts designed for them is increasingly large.

Developments and Events, 1929. The most significant developments of the year were the following: (a) The growth of the National High School Orchestra Camp at Interlochen, Mich.; (b) increase in the number of settlements promoting music, seven of them employing full-time directors of social music, and the founding by the Music Division of the National Federation of Settlements of courses for the training of settlement music workers (*see* Social Settlements); (c) a national two-year study begun by the National Recreation Association of existing conditions and means for starting and maintaining musical activities undertaken for the love of music itself by all classes of people; (d) the introduction of music into the schools of 100 rural communities of New York State through the efforts of the National Recreation Association, and the establishment of festival centers where groups from communities represented by these schools sing or play together; also similar activities begun in rural centers in Michigan and North Carolina; (e) the growth of classical concerts given over the radio, notable among which are the Damrosch Children's Concerts.

Consult: Publications of the organizations named in this article.

Augustus Delafield Zanzig

For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 590.

NARCOTIC DRUGS. *See* Drug Addiction.

NATIONAL CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK. *See* Conferences of Social Work.

NATURALIZATION. *See* Immigrants and Foreign Communities.

NATURE STUDY as a form of recreation is increasing in popularity. It was a conspicuous feature of the Recreation Congress in Louisville in 1929, demonstrations of nature-guidance being made for the benefit of delegates on that occasion. In the course of an address before the Congress, Mrs. Thomas A. Edison said, "To get the maximum of enjoyment, the town and city dweller needs a liberal education in nature study . . . Teach our children—and grown-ups as well—

to love the things of nature, to study them with the eagerness of the artist, and the automobile trip becomes an open sesame to many real delights."

Nature trails are perhaps the latest development in recreational nature study. They were tried out experimentally in the Palisades Interstate Park on the Hudson River, and have since been organized in the metropolitan parks of Cleveland. Akron and Lynn had their first nature trails during 1929. The Recreation Commission of Westchester County made a successful experiment in using traveling nature exhibits. They were displayed in the playgrounds of the county. The progress made recently in bird protection is an example of growing national interest in the matter of outdoor education. Although the year witnessed the passing of the heath hen, which made its last stand on the island of Marthas Vineyard, Mass., Congress appropriated $7,875,000 for the purchase of other wild fowl sanctuaries, and $200,000 a year for their maintenance. A long step toward a national bird day was made during the year when the second Friday in April was proclaimed by eleven governors as Bird Day for their respective states. During the year campaigns were carried on by the American Nature Association, the General Federation of Women's Clubs, and others for billboard restriction and for arousing public interest in the selection of a national flower.

Closely related to nature study is the idea of conservation. The preservation of forests, water supply, native wild flowers, and fur-bearing animals have been given increased attention. The year also marked the organization of a council for the conservation of whales. This act is most timely, for whales have been nearly exterminated. The radio is an increasing and effective means for spreading interest in nature study and conservation. The Radio Nature League was organized in 1925 to assist in a program of that character. During the year the Ohio State Department of Education organized a so-called School of the Air, with a weekly nature talk. Natural history museums are also making nature study popular. During the year plans were matured for the establishment of the Philadelphia Scientific Museum in memory of Benjamin Franklin, at a probable cost of $5,000,000. It is described as a place "not only where learning shall be shown in its greatness and power, but where learning shall be made attractive." Week-end leadership and nature training institutes and conferences at camps are becoming increasingly popular. The Izaak Walton League held its first Nature Lore Institute at Evanston, Ill., in May, 1928, and again in 1929. Oakland County, Cal., held a training course during 1929 and Houston, Tex., was planning such a course for March, 1930. Organizations in the field, in addition to those listed in Part II, include the following: The American Forestry Association; the American Tree Association; the National Council of Supervisors of Nature Study and Gardening; School Garden Association of New York; School Nature League; the Agassiz Association; the Camp Directors Association; the Wild Flower Preservation Society; the National Association of Audubon Societies; the Reptile Society of America; National Conference on State Parks; the Izaak Walton League of America; the American Alpine Club; the Boone and Crockett Club; the American Bison Society; the Garden Club of America; and the Camp Fire Club.

CONSULT: Annual reports and publications of the national agencies named in the foregoing article; Nature Department of *Camp Life* since January, 1929; "The Child Discovers the Universe," in *Child Study*, May, 1929, and articles in the special camp issue of *Safety Education*, June, 1929.

WILLIAM GOULD VINAL

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 590.

NEEDLEWORK GUILDS. *See* SOCIETIES FOR FRIENDLY SERVICES.

NEGLECTED CHILDREN. *See* CHILD PROTECTION and DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

NEGROES. In 1920 there were in the United States and its possessions 10,463,131 Negroes, and the best estimates indicate that the number will be approximately 12,000,000 in 1930. At the bottom of the wage scale, with a high rate of morbidity and mortality, contributing more than his proportion of crime, and frequently the victim of race prejudices and social injustices, the Negro is often thought of as America's greatest social and racial problem.

History and Present Status. Up to the close of the Civil War the history of the colored race in this country was very largely the history of slavery, and the agencies chiefly interested in assisting the race were those like the abolition societies, which fought slavery as such, and the Colonization Society, which sent many Negroes to Liberia. During the two or three decades following the Civil War various other agencies attempted, now vigorously, now feebly, to make the promised freedom real and vital. During the last year of the war, March 3, 1865, the Freedmen's Bureau was established by the federal government. It assigned land to freedmen, not more than 40 acres to each, distributed provisions, fuel, and clothing, and established and conducted schools. Its work was concluded in 1870 after the expenditure of more than $20,000,000.

Many individuals and organized church groups also contributed to the establishment of schools for Negroes in the southern states, and some of these schools became centers of great importance. Following Booker T. Washington's famous address in 1895 at the Atlanta Cotton Exposition, the policies of organizations of and for the Negro race were influenced greatly by Tuskegee Institute. Industrial education in the academic world and Armstrong associations and Negro business leagues in the realm of social and economic welfare became the chief instrumentalities used.

Meanwhile also efforts at systematic disfranchisement of the Negroes in the South, against which Douglass and other leaders fought for 30 years after the Civil War, were gradually being overcome as a result of the increasing literacy of the group and the decision of the United States Supreme Court in 1915 that the so-called "grandfather clause" was unconstitutional. However, nine-tenths of the race remained in the South until the beginning of the wartime migrations, furnishing most of the common labor and much of the skilled labor, often at less than fair pay. In several northern cities, such as Detroit, Chicago, Cleveland, New York, and Pittsburgh, the wartime migrations produced centers of Negro voters strong enough to be politically effective, and the result was the election of Negroes to city councils and state legislatures, and in one instance to Congress. Meanwhile the exodus from the South influenced that section to accord Negroes a larger civil and political freedom in order to keep them at home. Justice in the courts and the abolition of peonage were advocated with a degree of success.

It is perhaps due in part to these economic and political changes that the past decade has been one of especially marked educational progress. Tuskegee and Hampton are now institutions of college rank, aiming at real vocational training instead of offering merely industrial work. There has also been a great growth in the universities. For the first time a Negro college has a million dollar endowment, and approximately $7,000,000 has been raised for Hampton and Tuskegee. Large appropriations have been made by the federal government for Howard University, Washington, D. C., and substantial sums have been appropriated for state schools for the Negroes by Southern legislatures. The merger of colleges in several centers is significant. In Atlanta three schools —Morehouse College, Atlanta University, and Spelman Seminary—are being consolidated. Straight University, New Orleans University, and Flint-Goodridge Hospital in New Orleans are being merged to form the

new Dillard University with an appropriation of $2,000,000 from the Methodist Board of Education, the Rosenwald Fund, the General Education Board, and the American Missionary Association. In Nashville, Meharry Medical College is to be rebuilt on a site adjoining the campus of Fisk University.

In part, however, these improvements in educational facilities have resulted from the activities of agencies especially organized in recent years to promote the social welfare of the Negro and to further a better understanding between the white and black races in this country. The earliest of these agencies, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, was formed in 1909. For 20 years it has contended for the civil and political rights of the Negro from the platform and through the press, carrying the fight into state and federal legislatures and into the courts, even as far as the Supreme Court. It has fought against lynching and against segregation and other forms of social discrimination, and has opposed the passage of laws prohibiting marriage between the races in the North. Publicity and propaganda on the one hand, and legal defense and prosecution on the other, are its chief methods of work.

The National Urban League was created for social service among colored people about 20 years ago. To the conservative and cooperative spirit of Hampton and Tuskegee, and their appreciation of community and economic problems, it added a new technique and efficiency in the study and handling of social and community problems. It sought to bring together for purposes of community welfare the better class of white and of colored people, and out of this effort has grown the inter-racial movement to be described later.

The League now has branches or affiliations in 41 cities. It has done much toward the objective study of social problems, securing funds for social work, organizing and stimulating social service activities, and furnishing trained leadership. It has given emphasis to the need of industrial opportunities by studying industrial welfare problems and seeking industrial opportunities for the Negro wherever chance permitted. Most of its work has been in cities.

The inter-racial movement, born shortly after the World War, is represented by two organizations, the Commission on the Church and Race Relations—a department of the Federal Council of Churches—and the Commission on Inter-racial Cooperation. The first of these agencies attempts to stimulate the interest of the church in questions of race relations. It serves as a clearing house for information; protests against mob violence; promotes the observance of Race Relations Sunday, with the exchange of white and colored ministers in the churches; and seeks to encourage equitable provisions for the education, health, industrial opportunity, housing, recreation, and community welfare of the Negro race. In the North in general, and in the church in particular, it carries on the work which in the South is promoted by the Commission on Inter-racial Cooperation.

The Commission on Inter-racial Cooperation, which maintains headquarters in Atlanta, seeks to unite the best people of both races on questions affecting their relationships, and tries to substitute justice and goodwill for distrust and suspicion. The Commission has given wide publicity to facts about lynching, and after a study of the laws for the prevention and punishment of mob violence has endeavored to have them strengthened. In some states, as in Georgia, it has collected evidence and assisted in the prosecution of participants in lynchings. Working along educational lines, it has been instrumental in having colored schools included in bond issues, school terms lengthened, and salaries raised. It has won the endorsement of practically all the Protestant denominations, and has enlisted the active interest of many of the leading white women of the South. It has helped to sponsor Negro Health Week and has urged the inclusion of Negro social agencies in community chests. Some 60 local inter-racial committees have been organized.

Four other types of social work for Negroes

should be mentioned: (1) the character building programs promoted by the Young Women's Christian Association, Young Men's Christian Association, Boy Scouts of America, and Girl Scouts; (2) the sectarian social work developed under the missionary and social service departments of various churches, including especially the Methodist Episcopal Church, Methodist Episcopal Church South, Baptist, Presbyterian, Episcopalian, Congregational, and Catholic, all of which carry on educational and social work in addition to their evangelistic activities; (3) the health work promoted by the United States Public Health Service, the National Anti-Tuberculosis Association, and the American Social Hygiene Association; and (4) the child welfare activities organized by the Child Welfare League of America and the federal Children's Bureau.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Social agencies in this field are more and more demanding trained workers, and a number of centers now offer training courses. The Urban League offers scholarships at the University of Pittsburgh, Carnegie Institute of Technology, Columbia University, New York School of Social Work, and the Graduate School of Social Service Administration at the University of Chicago. Other well-known training centers are the Atlanta School of Social Work, Fisk University, Bethlehem Center in Nashville, Howard University, and the University of Cincinnati. At the last named institution four scholarships are available, and the students take field work in social agencies affiliated with the Council of Social Agencies under a supervisor employed by the Council.

Developments and Events, 1929. Among the Negro agencies created in 1929 were a Child Placement Bureau in Cincinnati, Ohio, the Utopia Neighborhood House for preschool children under the auspices of the Children's Aid Society in New York City, Columbus Hill Neighborhood Center in New York City, and a joint service bureau in Chicago for the placement of colored children. In Austin, Texas, an association of Negro women for general welfare work secured a new building in which to house baby clinics and a health center. Of wider significance perhaps was the creation in the Welfare Division of the Tennessee State Department of Institutions of the position of Supervisor of Negro Welfare. The work is correlated with the Social Science Department of Fisk University. During the year the Dorsey House Orphanage at Rochester, the North Philadelphia and West Philadelphia Branches of the Young Men's Christian Association, the Whittier Center of Philadelphia, and the Hallie Q. Brown Community House of St. Paul were discontinued chiefly on account of lack of funds, while the Industrial Settlement Home of Memphis was given up because of a fire.

A new park for Negroes was created in Memphis. In a number of places white agencies expanded their activities to include special work for Negroes. The New Jersey State Conference of Social Work made work among Negroes a part of its year-round program. Two colored Boy Scout troops were organized in Galveston, and two camp sites were bought in Harlem. Well-baby clinics were opened at the New York Urban League by the Board of Health, and a clinic for Negro babies was organized at the University House, Philadelphia. The Model Homes Company of Cincinnati announced that it would build suburban homes for colored tenants at a moderate rent. In several places colored case workers were employed for the first time, or additions were made to the number of those already in service. This was true of organizations in Detroit, Philadelphia, St. Louis, Newark, Cincinnati, Cleveland, and New York City; organizations in the four last named places added five, eight, twelve, and thirteen colored workers, respectively, to their staffs. A colored nurse was added to the staff of the Pennsylvania State Department of Health, and a Negro police surgeon was appointed in New York City. Other appointments of Negroes included Young Women's Christian

Association secretaries in Milwaukee and Rochester, a woman probation officer in Memphis, and a family case worker in Nashville. Negroes were added to the governing boards of social agencies in a number of cities, among them the Community Fund of Boston, the New York Tuberculosis Association, Harlem Hospital (New York City), the New Jersey State Conference of Social Work, the Council of Church Women (Rochester), and the Community Chest of Washington. In many places Negro churches began developing social service programs. An outstanding example was the Trinity Catholic Church of Cincinnati, which established a children's summer camp and initiated other extensive activities.

Important surveys relating to Negro welfare were made during the year in Pittsburgh, Denver, Richmond, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Akron, Austin, Chicago, and the District of Columbia. The Rosenwald Fund appropriated $60,000 toward the control of venereal diseases among the Negroes in rural districts of the South. The United States Department of Labor completed a study (Publication No. 70, 1929) of Negro women in industry in 15 states, and the Social Science Research Council conducted an investigation of racial attitudes toward the Negro.

State appropriations were made for cottages for delinquent colored girls in Florida and for the construction and maintenance of a tuberculosis sanitarium for Negroes in Arkansas, and a commission was created by the governor of Indiana to consider the establishment of a home for colored orphan children in that state.

CONSULT: Hart, Albert Bushnell: *Slavery and Abolition*, 1906, and *The Southern South*, 1910; DuBois, W. E. B.: *The Souls of Black Folk*, 1903; Woodson, Carter G.: *The Negro in Our History*, 1927; Work, Monroe N.: *The Negro Year Book*, 1925–1926 (contains a bibliography); Washington, Booker T.: *Up from Slavery*, 1901; annual reports of the National Urban League, Commission on Inter-Racial Co-operation, National Association for Advancement of Colored People, and Federal Council of Churches; and *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1929.

JAMES HATHAWAY ROBINSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 590.

NEIGHBORHOOD HOUSES. *See* SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS.

NIGHT WORK IN INDUSTRY. The number of employes in this country affected by the practice of night work is unknown. "The Twelve Hour Shift in Industry," a report published in 1922 by the Federated American Engineering Societies, lists about 40 leading industries as requiring work on the "continuous-operation" basis, either constantly or seasonally. In certain plants three shifts of workers are used, in others two. The day force in the latter is usually employed for 11 hours, the night force for 13 hours. The proportion of night to day employes varies from 10 to 100 per cent in the industries covered. Overtime during the peak season is the regular practice of many more than 40 leading industries. While overtime may not require the full 24-hour operation of a plant, it may entail work until midnight or after. Night work exists also in many non-manufacturing occupations. Public utilities, restaurants, hotels, and places of amusement must remain open for convenience of the public. This article considers only the legal regulation of night work. Such regulation is limited to women and minors.

History and Present Status. The harmful social effect of unrestricted night work is recognized in state laws to relieve women and minors of its most damaging features. Such control has advanced unevenly in four major divisions—in laws affecting children under 16 years of age, male minors 16 to 18 years old, female minors 16 to 21 years old, and adult women. The first night work law in this country was passed in Rhode Island in 1853; it prohibited the employment of chil-

dren 12 to 15 years of age between 7:30 p. m. and 5:00 a. m. In 1890 Massachusetts enacted the first night work law applying to adult women workers. The passage of these early laws elicited the usual assertion that under them business could not continue. Proponents argued that the state has a supreme stake in the health and well being of women workers because of their maternal function, and that children and minors are wards of the state and entitled to its protection against exploitation.

Existing statutes reveal one common characteristic. Human welfare, even in these laws intended to conserve it, is constantly subordinated to the demands of industry. The highest standards are those prescribed for working children under 16 years of age, but even for that group two states have no night work laws, and in eight employment is permitted until eight, nine, or ten o'clock. One state merely forbids the employment of children under 14 years of age in stores after 7:00 p. m., and in eight the prohibitions apply to manufacturing establishments only. Exemptions are granted in many statutes, particularly to the canning industry. Aside from the regulation of theatrical performances and messenger service, only seven states and the District of Columbia have restricted night work for both boys and girls 16 to 18 years old. Six others have extended their child labor statutes to cover night employment for girls to 18 years of age, but not for boys over 16. In still another eight states, girls over 16 years of age are given protection against night work through the women's night work statutes, in the limited occupations which they cover. Adolescent boys over 16 years of age may work during any hours in 41 states, and girls over 16 may do so in 27 states.

Statutory regulation of the employment of women at night has made slow progress. The most serious check occurred in 1907 when the New York Court of Appeals declared unconstitutional the women's night work law of 1903. The result of that decision in New York was sharply to retard the development of similar legislation in other states. Only Connecticut, Pennsylvania, and South Carolina passed night work bills in the decade ending in 1912, and Oregon, through its Industrial Commission, regulated such work in mercantile establishments. Because of arguments presented, which were supported by a brief prepared by Louis D. Brandeis and Josephine Goldmark, the New York Court of Appeals in 1914 reversed its seven-year-old decision, and held constitutional the New York statute of 1913.

Sixteen states have forbidden the employment of women at night (usually between 10:00 p.m. and 5:00 a.m.) in specified occupations, and two others have made an oblique approach to the problem by limiting the hours for night employment to not more than 8 in 24, or 48 in any one week. In three of these 18 states the law is so limited in its application that its value to most women employes is practically *nil*. In Ohio the act applies only to ticket sellers; in Washington only to elevator operators; in South Carolina only to mercantile establishments after 10:00 p. m.

The effects of the strains of night work are more important than ever, due to the growing custom of continued industrial employment of women after marriage. The aim of restrictive legislation is (a) to safeguard the health of young workers—boys or girls—so that they may arrive at maturity free from the debilitating effects of insufficient sleep and over-fatigue, and (b) to safeguard the health of working women who are potential or actual mothers of the next generation of American citizens. Publicity incident to recent textile strikes affords new illustrations of conditions which arise where unrestricted night work is permitted, either through lack of legislation or failure to enforce it. Long hours, lack of a rest or lunch period, and low wages are the usual concomitants of night work. The unrest in the South emphasizes the social costs when such exploitation is not forbidden by the state.

Developments and Events, 1929. New Jersey passed its night work act in 1923. This remained inoperative, however, until the Bureau of Women and Children was established during 1929 within the Department of Labor. The chief of that Bureau ruled that an act passed by the legislature remains in force until repealed or held unconstitutional by the State Supreme Court. She accordingly served warning on employers that violators would be taken into court. With this sole exception, the year 1929 closed without any advance in either enactment or administration of night work laws for women and minors.

CONSULT: Goldmark, Josephine: *Fatigue and Efficiency,* 1912; Brandeis, Louis D., and Goldmark, Josephine: *The Case Against Night Work or Women* (revised edition), 1918; the following reports of the Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: (a) *Reports on women workers in twelve states,* 1919 to 1925; (b) *The Employment of Women at Night,* Bulletin No. 64, 1928; (c) *The Effects of Labor Legislation on the Employment Opportunities of Women,* Bulletin No. 65, 1928; and (d) *History of Labor Legislation for Women in Three States,* Bulletin No. 66, 1929; Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *Child Labor—Facts and Figures,* Publication No. 197 (in press); Federated American Engineering Societies: *The Twelve Hour Shift in Industry,* 1922; and National Industrial Conference Board: *Night Work in Industry,* 1927.

FLORENCE KELLEY
MARGUERITE M. MARSH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 591.

NON-SUPPORT. *See* DESERTION AND NON-SUPPORT.

NURSERY SCHOOLS in the United States are educational agencies established for the study and education of children from 18 months to four or five years of age. They include as an integral part of their philosophy the education of parents in order that young children may have continuity of experience in home and school. A conspicuous and significant characteristic of the nursery school movement as developed in the United States is that it has engaged the interest not only of educators, but of psychologists, psychiatrists, nutritionists, pediatricians, home economics specialists, social workers, sociologists, and public health nurses.

Nursery schools are thus in many ways closely related both to child development research and parent education, but there are areas in each of these fields into which a discussion of the nursery school need not enter. Much, although by no means all, of the significant recent research in different aspects of child development has been carried on by utilizing the nursery school as a laboratory, but there are many nursery schools which are not so used. Practically all nursery schools try to educate parents as well as children, but their contacts are naturally limited to the fathers and mothers of young children, while parent education as an organized movement is concerned with children of all ages from infancy to adolescence. Gradually other agencies dealing with young children, such as day nurseries, neighborhood houses, clinics, hospitals, and kindergartens, are organizing nursery schools for children from two to four years of age. So far as possible, this article will be confined to those aspects of the nursery school movement which are not covered in related articles. *See* CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH, PARENT EDUCATION, KINDERGARTENS, and DAY NURSERIES.

History and Present Status. Like all social phenomena, the development of nursery schools is the result of the interaction of many trends and forces. The thinking of such men as Comenius and Rousseau certainly had influence, but the beginning of infant schools is more directly to be traced to Pestalozzi and Froebel. Two of the pioneers for infant schools in the latter eighteenth and early nineteenth centuries were Oberlin in France and Robert Owen in England. More immediately we find that the nursery

schools in England under the leadership of Margaret MacMillan and Grace Owen have greatly influenced the movement in the United States. Three of our earliest schools acknowledge this indebtedness: the Merrill-Palmer School in Detroit; Teachers College, Columbia University; and the Nursery Training School of Boston. The work of Madame Montessori in Italy has influenced her followers in the United States to open Montessori nursery schools, but the Montessori philosophy has not influenced the nursery school movement in general.

In the United States, several correlative developments have tended to emphasize the significance of the early years of life and the importance of adequate physical, psychological, and educational provisions. Such developments during the past quarter of a century include child health and infant hygiene, mental hygiene, the child study movement, and home economics. In England the modern nursery school, from its beginnings in 1909, has been largely philanthropic in purpose, centering its activities in the poorest areas in an effort to help meet difficult social problems. One of the first schools established in this country was of this type (the Ruggles Street Nursery, 1922, now the Nursery Training School of Boston), and recently several others similarly located in industrial neighborhoods have been opened in connection with day nurseries in New York, Cleveland, Chicago, and elsewhere. In the United States, however, the nursery school has developed more frequently as an educational and research center. The earliest schools were established for educational research (Bureau of Educational Experiments, 1919; Teachers College, Columbia University, 1922) and for the education of young girls in care and training of children through home economics schools (Merrill-Palmer, 1922; Iowa State College, 1924). Other interests which have led to the establishment of nursery schools are research in child development (Universities of Iowa, Minnesota, and California, Columbia University and Yale University); cooperative interests of parents (University of Chicago, Smith College, Cambridge, Mass.); behavior clinics (Play School for Habit Training, Boston); pre-parental training in the liberal arts college (Vassar College and Mills College); interest of kindergartners in younger children (University of California, in Los Angeles, Cleveland Kindergarten-Primary Training School of Western Reserve University, and the public schools of Kalamazoo).

In this development of nursery schools the public schools have had but a small part. This has been due partly to the unwillingness of public officials to experiment with a new venture, but mostly it has been because of the desire of leaders in the field to protect the nursery school from becoming stereotyped or limited administratively to meet the demands of public school organization. A few experiments are in operation, outstanding among them being the Franklin Public School Nursery in Chicago and the Winnetka Nursery School in Winnetka, Ill. Each represents a joint endeavor of the public schools and a local women's club.

A survey of nursery schools by the United States Office of Education dated January, 1930, lists 157 nursery schools located in 91 cities in 31 states. This is an increase of 34 per cent over the number reported by that office for the preceding year, and 87 per cent increase over the number reported by the National Society for the Study of Education in its yearbook published early in 1929. Some of the increase is undoubtedly due to the fact that the Office of Education includes in its list any agency which claims to be a nursery school. According to the survey published in January, 1930, there were 2,995 children enrolled in 146 nursery schools, with a median of 19.3 children per school and a range of from 6 to 66 children. The nursery school day ranges from two and one-half to twelve hours, with a median of from six to eight hours. A scanning of these nursery schools shows 49 connected with universities or colleges and 23 connected with other educational institutions; 30 connected with day

nurseries, neighborhood houses and other philanthropic agencies; and 45 which are apparently independent private ventures of parents or others.

There seems to be an increasing demand within day nurseries to establish nursery schools for the child from two to four years old as kindergartens have been established for five-year-olds. The National Federation of Day Nurseries is much interested in this problem. There is an immediate need for special studies in regard to financing, staffing, and equipping the day nursery to undertake such projects. Recent developments also show that many private nursery schools are being organized, some as cooperative ventures by mothers, others by individuals. Here again there is need for upholding standards for both staff and program.

Developments and Events, 1929. A conference of nursery school workers, the third of its kind, was called during the year at Chicago by the National Committee on Nursery Schools. At this conference a committee report was presented which included the first tentative formulation of minimum essentials for nursery school work. These minimum essentials and the conference proceedings are to be published in 1930. At this conference also an important step was taken in regard to the organization of people concerned with nursery schools. A proposal was made and discussed that the National Committee on Nursery Schools, the International Kindergarten Union, and the National Council of Primary Education unite to form a new association for early childhood education. Although nursery school workers recognized the imperative need for affiliating closely with these two groups in the interest of continuity in the education of children, it was decided for the present to keep an independent organization. This was because of the newness of the nursery school movement and the desirability of bringing together the various specialists in the field and working out an integrated philosophy with more clearly defined objectives and methods.

CONSULT: National Society for the Study of Education: *Yearbook*, 1929 (Includes a bibliography); Johnson, Harriet: *Children in the Nursery School*, 1928; Foster, Josephine (Curtis) and Mattson, Marion L.: *Nursery School Procedure*, 1929; Forest, Ilse: *Preschool Education*, 1927 (pp. 266–309 and 332–370); Meek, Lois Hayden: "The Preschool Movement," in *Progressive Education*, January, 1929; Davis, Mary Dabney, and Heinig, Christine M.: "Housing and Equipping the Washington Child Research Center," in *School Life*, December, 1929, and January, 1930; Stoddard, George D.: "Extending the Schools Downward," in *Educational Administration and Supervision*, November, 1929.

LOIS HAYDEN MEEK

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 591.

NURSING EDUCATION. The modern school of nursing came into being in this country in 1873, when the system founded by Florence Nightingale was introduced into Bellevue Hospital in New York City. The early schools were founded upon high ideals of service and brought about remarkable changes in the care of the sick in hospitals. Rapid growth in the number of schools and students took place.

All graduate nurses since those early days, whether engaged in nursing in the hospital, in private practice, or in what is today known as public health nursing, have been important factors in the public health movement. One aftermath of the World War was a greatly increased interest in health, and with this a growing need for large numbers of nurses with high qualifications to fill the positions in the expanding field. The type and quality of nursing education thus became of very great significance.

Early in the history of the profession, professional organization took place. The first of these organizations, the American Society of Superintendents of Training Schools for Nurses (now the National League of Nursing Education) has been a power in the development of the schools. It was this organization

which in 1889 captured the interest of the Dean of Teachers College, Columbia University, with the result that what is now the Department of Nursing Education was established. In 1910 this department, strengthened by an endowment, broadened its curriculum to include preparation for the public health nursing field. The stamp of the National League of Nursing Education is found on the curricula of the progressive schools of nursing throughout the country. It played a leading rôle in bringing into existence the present Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools.

In 1919 the Rockefeller Foundation authorized a committee to conduct "a study of the proper training of public health nurses." The committee found the problem so involved with that of nursing the sick and that of nursing education that in a year's time, at the request of the Foundation, it broadened its scope to include "a study of general nursing education." This study revealed the difficulties involved in the conduct of a school of nursing by an institution whose primary purpose was care of the sick. "From our field study of the nurse in public health nursing, in private duty and as instructor and supervisor in hospitals," says the secretary of the committee, "it is clear that there is need of a basic undergraduate training for all nurses alike, which should lead to a nursing diploma. Postgraduate training in any one of the three nursing specialties should be given after the completion of the basic undergraduate course and should lead to a further diploma or degree." The committee also emphasized the need for securing funds for the endowment of nursing education of all types, and urged the development and strengthening of schools of nursing under university auspices.

The establishment of the Yale University School of Nursing as an independent school in the university with its own dean and own budget was a direct result of the above study. The Yale school requires two years of college work for entrance, gives a two-year and four-month course, and carries out a broad program for its students. The course leads to the degree of Bachelor of Nursing. An endowed and independent school has also been formed at Western Reserve University. At the present time records show about 45 colleges and universities which are either directly connected with the schools of nursing or which provide courses of instruction for the graduate nurse, many of them in the field of public health nursing. This report of the Committee for the Study of Nursing Education has also had a very definite effect upon hospital schools of nursing.

At the present time much greater emphasis is being laid on the social and preventive aspects of nursing. Clinical experience in mental nursing and in communicable disease is on the increase. Greater emphasis is being laid on the case method of teaching in the wards of the hospitals, whereby the students learn to think of and treat their patients as individuals, as well as persons suffering from specific diseases.

The United States census for 1920 showed a total of 149,128 trained nurses. The United States Office of Education showed a total of 17,522 nurses graduated from the training schools in 1926. Despite the warning of the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools that the field of nursing is greatly overcrowded, there has been a noticeable increase in the numbers of students in training this past year. Exact figures are not obtainable. There is great demand for highly qualified nurses with special preparation for the educational and administrative posts in both the institutional and the public health fields.

Among the research projects under way during 1929 were a study of schools of nursing as a basis for a self-analysis by schools and a study of costs in nursing, both carried on by the Committee on the Grading of Nursing Schools.

CONSULT: Goldmark, Josephine: *Nursing and Nursing Education in the United States,* 1923; Nutting and Dock: *A History of Nursing,* 1912; Nutting, M. Adelaide: *A Sound Economic Basis for Schools of Nursing and Other Addresses,* 1926;

Burgess, May Ayres: *Nurses, Patients, and Pocketbooks,* 1928; National League of Nursing Education, Committee on Education: *Suggested Curriculum for Schools of Nursing;* also issues of the *American Journal of Nursing* and *The Public Health Nurse.*

ELIZABETH C. BURGESS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 591.

NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN. Dr. L. Emmett Holt, a noted child specialist, once said: "There may be good nutrition without good health, but there cannot be good health without good nutrition." A consideration of this statement will show the vital relationship of good nutrition to social conditions. Sickness has for years been recognized as one of the main causes of dependency, of distress, and of a low standard of living, but only recently has the desirability of good nutrition been appreciated as one means of combating these social ills. Scientific research now shows that by giving proper attention to nutrition during the prenatal period and throughout childhood and adult life one may reasonably expect to increase physical vigor and the resistance of the body in combating certain diseases, especially tuberculosis, and to prolong the period of economic productivity. Those who have given thoughtful consideration to these statements feel that nutrition work is one of the fundamentals in constructive social work.

The growth of the nutrition program has been gradual, with emphasis changing from the feeding of undernourished school children to the correction of malnutrition in children of school age, and more recently to the prevention of malnutrition through attention to the preschool child, the infant and the pregnant woman, and to the keeping of those who are in good condition from becoming malnourished. Far-seeing leaders in the field are not content, however, with the mere absence of malnutrition; they are now stressing the promotion of optimum development. These various stages in a nutrition program have followed so closely one upon another that doubtless few have adopted the policy of optimum well-being as yet; much less have they grasped its effect on society.

Progress in the method of determining the state of nutrition of a child has kept pace with the interest in the subject. At first the relation of weight to height and age was used, and the degree of malnutrition was stated in terms of the per cent below, or above, the average weight. The fallacy of this method became apparent, however, when people realized that many children of average weight might suffer from malnutrition because they were low in resistance. The Dunfermline scale (devised by Dr. McAllister Mackenzie, of Dunfermline, Scotland), or some modification of it was then substituted for the height-weight method. As this method can be used only by one who understands signs of physical abnormality, its use placed the diagnosis of nutrition in the hands of the physician. In the Dunfermline scale the degree of nutrition is judged by physical defects, by weight in relation to height and age, and by various other aspects of health. This method is at least fairly satisfactory for the average individual physician, but it does not permit of a fair estimate of the amount of malnutrition in a group of children, because no two physicians state their findings in comparable terms. Dr. Raymond Franzen, of the American Child Health Association, is now conducting experiments on the methods of measuring physical development which, he feels, may obviate the personal equation in judging the nutritional condition of a child.

History and Present Status. Organized efforts to combat malnutrition in children began in this country with the establishment of school lunches in Philadelphia in 1898. The theory was then held that malnutrition resulted from underfeeding and that to provide good food free, or at a price within the reach of all, was the best method of improv-

ing nutrition among school children. This point of view prevailed for some ten years, with a number of cities following the example of Philadelphia in establishing school feeding. In 1908, however, Dr. William R. P. Emerson, of Boston, believing that the cause of this condition was not so often too little food as it was inability to assimilate food properly because of improper eating habits or the presence of physical defects or other physical conditions, started what he called a nutrition class for children. In this class much attention was given to weight as an index to nutrition. Physical defects were corrected so far as possible and a great effort was made to enlist the active interest and cooperation of children and their parents. Soon after, Dr. C. H. Smith organized similar nutrition classes at Bellevue Hospital, in New York City. The idea spread rapidly. Boards of education in a large number of cities introduced nutrition classes, and special training was given at universities and elsewhere for women desiring to enter the field of nutrition work. The interest of the public was aroused by the widespread publicity given to the nutrition class idea, and doubtless the discovery of the high percentage of physical defects among men drafted for the World War helped the movement.

In 1918 the American Child Health Association (then the Child Health Organization) came into being. It was instrumental in calling the attention of educators to the nutrition of school children, and the physical examination of entire school populations which resulted showed from 20 to 30 per cent or more to be malnourished. The nutrition class was found inadequate to reach these thousands of children, and the present system of giving class-room instruction to all children was established. This teaching serves both as a preventive and as a remedial measure. Sometimes the instruction is given by a specially trained nutrition worker, and sometimes by the class-room teacher under the instruction of the specialist; in many places the nutrition instruction has been merged with health education in schools. The work in the schools is growing rapidly, but figures as to its extent are not available. *See* Health Education in the Public Schools. Nutrition work is also contributing much to public health agencies. Today no health center or health agency is considered complete without at least one worker who can act as a consultant in nutrition to both clients and field workers. Her duties consist chiefly in individual conferences with mothers of both well children and malnourished children, and in the preparation of educational material; it is her responsibility also to interpret to laymen the results of research carried on in the field of nutrition by colleges and universities. *See* Health Centers and Public Health Associations.

Great as is their need for advice on nutrition problems, comparatively few family welfare agencies employ nutritionists. Some have home economists who are responsible for the homemaking problems of their clients, and they also advise case workers concerning nutrition, but the only family welfare agency known to the author which employs nutritionists is the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, which has nine nutritionists besides the director of the bureau and her assistant; the major time of these workers is spent in families where malnutrition exists. *See* Visiting Housekeepers and Home Economists. As nutritionists are neither organized nor registered, it is impossible to know how extensively they are employed by other social agencies. However, scattered throughout the country are home demonstration agents, extension workers, nutritionists employed by the American Red Cross, by tuberculosis associations, and by city boards of health, to all of whom other social agencies may turn for help and advice on nutrition problems. It is probable that the growing recognition of good nutrition as a social asset will lead to a much greater use of these specialists.

Studies in progress in this field during 1929 include one relating to methods for measur-

ing physical development, by the American Child Health Association; and an economic study, by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, of the food value of diets in families of low income.

CONSULT: American Red Cross: *Nutrition Bibliography* (revised edition), 1930; Roberts, Lydia J.: *Nutrition Work with Children*, 1927; American Child Health Association: *Physical Measures of Growth and Nutrition*, 1929, and *Proceedings* of the Sixth Annual Meeting, 1929; Chaplin, Hugh, and Strecker, Edward A.: *Signs of Health in Childhood*, 1927.

LUCY H. GILLETT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 591.

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES. Injuries arising from industrial work are in part the result of swift acting, traumatizing agents, leading to such obvious conditions as torn flesh and broken bones; and in part the result of insidiously acting agents such as dusts or fumes, leading to less obvious but no less disabling occupational diseases, such as silicosis and lead poisoning. The general extent is indicated by the fact that approximately seven hundred substances or processes utilized in industry may produce occupational skin diseases alone.

History and Present Status. Legislative bodies, about 1908, began to regard occupational diseases as distinct entities. The earliest measures may be termed "investigative"—such, for example, as the Illinois law of 1910 creating the Commission on Occupational Diseases. Between 1909 and 1913 several federal acts created bureaus with functions related to the control of occupational diseases. Typical of these is the Bureau of Mines. In the years from 1911 to 1925 there were 26 states which provided for the reporting of occupational diseases, by physicians, to the state departments of health and labor, one or both. A third type of protective law, common in some form to all states, calls for inspection of industrial establishments by one or both of such departments, and usually provides also for educational, preventive, abatement, and punitive measures. Frequently these powers are not utilized and the acts become futile.

Disability from occupational diseases is just as real as disability from traumatic injury. In compensation laws, however, less recognition has been given to occupational diseases than to accidental injuries. This is due in part to the less obvious features of the former, to their insidious development, to diagnostic difficulties, and to the lack of familiarity by physicians with this type of pathology. Between 1910, approximately, and 1929 the following states passed compensation laws relating to occupational diseases: "Blanket" provisions covering all occupational diseases were enacted in California, North Dakota, Wisconsin, Massachusetts, and Connecticut, and were embodied in three federal laws; and compensation, by the schedule method, was provided for in Minnesota, Illinois, Ohio, New York, New Jersey, and Porto Rico.

The "schedule system" provides compensation for only selected occupational diseases. It works to the distinct disadvantage of the person sick from some definite occupational disease which does not appear on the legal list. Under the blanket system it is possible for many borderline cases to reach the claim stage. That system may be expected to yield most satisfactory results when the law ignores the physical impairments that are inherent in the wear and tear of all labor, and limits itself to what may be called "characteristic occupational diseases." Lead poisoning is such a disease; arthritis is not, in industry in general, although it may be produced as a result of industrial work.

Compensation may be administered as a state monopoly through its own fund, through private insurance carriers, through state fund insurance or a private carrier at the option of the employer, or through self insurance under state supervision.

Developments and Events, 1929. A conspicuous trend during the year was the favorable attitude shown toward provisions for "inclusive coverage" as opposed to "schedule coverage." Inclusive coverage was approved by the Industrial Hygiene Section of the American Public Health Association (without committing the Association as a whole), with the understanding that such provisions should be applied only where adequate and competent medical personnel is available to administer them. Inclusive coverage was also given tacit but apparently unofficial endorsement during the year by the International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions. In Ohio a blanket coverage bill was defeated, but the following items were added to the schedule: Teno-synovitis (with limitations), radium poisoning, and manganese dioxide poisoning. The first-mentioned item is of importance. Connecticut promulgated a law for the reporting of occupational diseases by physicians, and provided a fee of 50 cents for this service. New York extended its coverage for occupational diseases, but the state still functions under the schedule system. Other noteworthy events were the following: The establishment of a department of applied physiology at the University of Cincinnati, with funds provided by interested industries; the appointment and functioning of the American Medical Association's committee to deal with noxious gases, this committee's work extending to public hazards in such matters as refrigerator gases, automobile exhaust fumes in public streets, and so forth; the appointment of a committee under the auspices of the National Safety Council to investigate the occupational hazards of sand blasting; research by the Cincinnati Heart Council with reference to work as a factor in the causation of heart diseases; and notable investigations by the United States Bureau of Mines and the Industrial Hygiene Division of the United States Public Health Service.

REFERENCES: The extensive literature in this field can only be suggested here. As secretary of the Industrial Hygiene Section of the American Public Health Association, the writer of this article, at 34 West Seventh Street, Cincinnati, has a limited supply of reports which will be furnished on request if postage is sent. For general information the following may be consulted: Kober, George Martin, and Hayhurst, Emery Roe: *Industrial Health*, 1924; Hayhurst, Emery Roe: "Occupational Diseases," in *Monthly Labor Review*, July, 1929, pp. 29–51, also "Occupational Disease Legislation in the United States" (unsigned) in the September, 1929, issue, pp. 70–89; Hamilton, Alice: *Industrial Poisons in the United States*, 1925; International Labor Office: *Bibliography of Industrial Hygiene*, published quarterly.

CAREY P. MCCORD

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 591.

OCCUPATIONAL REHABILITATION.

See REHABILITATION.

OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY has been defined as "the science of organized work for invalids," or as a form of remedial treatment consisting of various types of activities, mental or physical, which relieve a patient temporarily, or which either contribute to or hasten recovery from disease or injury. It is essential that occupational therapy be carried on under medical supervision and that it be consciously motivated.

The use of occupation as a method of treatment for sick and disabled persons is by no means a modern idea. The therapeutic value of exercise has long been recognized, but the exercises originally given in connection with medical treatment were often monotonous or formal and devoid of psychic influence upon the patients. Occupational therapy, on the other hand, recognizes the significance of the mental attitude which the sick person takes toward his illness, and attempts to make that attitude more wholesome by providing for activities adapted to the capacity of the individual patient and calculated to divert his attention from his own problems. The truth of a statement made by the late Dr. Thomas W. Salmon is

being increasingly recognized. He said: "Occupational therapy will some day rank with anaesthetics in taking the suffering out of sickness, and with antitoxins in shortening its duration. The greater part of the distress in chronic diseases is mental, and occupational therapy is thus far our only means of dealing with this factor."

History and Present Status. The earliest record of occupational therapy in this country indicates that this type of treatment was first used at the Pennsylvania Asylum for the Insane (Philadelphia) approximately a hundred years ago. Ever since that time there has been some demand for understanding and capable workers, but not until quite recently have training courses been offered. The Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy in 1908–1909 gave a summer course in occupational therapy and recreation which seems to have been first in the field. During the World War the demand for occupational therapists was so great that many war service courses were organized. These courses, which were short but intensive, established the need for more extensive preparation for this important hospital service.

Partly to meet this need, the American Occupational Therapy Association was organized in 1917. Its purpose was to serve as a central organization to study and furnish authoritative information on treatment by occupation and to promote its use. In 1929 there were 20 state and local associations in this field, and the membership of the national association was approximately 1,000. A recent survey of 212 hospitals and institutions in different parts of the United States found a total of 1,003 occupational therapists employed, of whom 589 had received professional training for this work. The institutions were of the following types: hospitals for mental diseases, 98; general hospitals, 54; tuberculosis sanatoria, 31; orthopedic hospitals, 9; convalescent homes, 9; children's hospitals, 7; agencies serving the homebound, 3; and one correctional institution.

These figures indicate the wide variety of uses to which occupational therapy is being put. In mental hospitals, training by occupation now includes, in addition to the teaching of handicrafts, habit training, physical exercise, and recreation. There is a tendency, particularly in the larger hospitals for mental cases, to make the chief occupational therapist a coordinator of recreational facilities active and passive, including music, library, and physical training. Many hospital superintendents believe this to be a logical arrangement, since it places the whole semi-social treatment of patients in the hands of a person well qualified to handle it.

In orthopedic hospitals the elaborate mechanical appliances introduced a generation ago to aid in functional restoration have been almost entirely superseded by curative workshops in which interesting work of graduated difficulty can be prescribed for practically every kind of functional disability. The federal vocational rehabilitation act of 1920 provided federal aid for the rehabilitation of persons disabled by accident or illness. *See* Rehabilitation. Experience has shown that many patients can be taught occupations for therapeutic purposes, as a preliminary to further training for gainful occupations under the provisions of the federal act, after their discharge.

An indication of the extent to which occupational therapy has become accepted by the medical profession is shown in the fact that the National Board of Medical Examiners has for the past two or three years included in its examination questions inquiries on the use of treatment by occupation.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Training courses in occupational therapy are now given at two independent schools—the Boston School of Occupational Therapy and the Philadelphia School of Occupational Therapy; at three educational institutions—Milwaukee-Downer College (Milwaukee), the University of Minnesota (Minneapolis), and Washington University (St. Louis); and at the Sheppard and Enoch Pratt Hospital (Towson, Md.). Post-graduate courses are

offered at Bloomingdale Hospital (White Plains, N. Y.), Walter Reed General Hospital (Washington, D. C.), and Robert Breck Brigham Hospital (Boston). The curriculum usually covers the following subjects: The study of biological and mental sciences; attendance at medical lectures; courses in sociology and social service; and special courses on occupational therapy, which include the history of the movement and its development in different types of institutions, its use in treatment of different diseases, and also training in design and working in textiles, basketry, woodwork, metals, leather, plastic arts, waste materials, in addition to remedial gymnastics, and recreation, including music.

Before being allowed to register in such courses candidates must present training equal to that of the minimum standards set up by the national association. These are high school education, and previous experience in the field of medicine, nursing, social service, teaching, or other activity in which training in dealing with people is obtained. A high degree of mental and physical health and a suitable personality are also required. After completing the two-year course there should be a period of practice training in hospitals and other institutions of different types. The national association is endeavoring to establish a national registry of all properly qualified occupational therapists.

CONSULT: Dunton, William R., Jr.: *Prescribing Occupational Therapy*, 1927; Hall, Herbert J.: *Occupational Therapy*, 1923; issues of *Occupational Therapy and Rehabilitation* (American Occupational Therapy Association); Hospital Library Service Bureau: *Bibliography on Occupational Therapy*, 1925; and the following pamphlets: Kidner, T. B.: *Standards in Occupational Therapy, Address to Graduates, Occupational Therapy, Professional Training in Occupational Therapy, The Importance of "Refresher" Work for Individual and Professional Advancement* (American Occupational Therapy Association).

ELEANOR CLARKE SLAGLE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

OLD AGE. *See* THE AGED.

OLD AGE PENSIONS. The problem of old age dependency has always existed, but three factors have combined recently to make the issue one of increasing importance. First, the advance in medical science has lengthened human life. There are more old people. Second, the increasing mechanization of industry has made it difficult for older workers to secure and hold jobs. There is comparatively little call for experience; instead, the premium is put on those able to withstand the augmented strain of highly specialized processes. Third, a more sensitive social conscience has caused the community increasingly to assume responsibility for those who, by reason of age, are no longer able to shift for themselves. This sense of community responsibility, rendered more acute by the weakening of the family unit, has led to a recognition of a social obligation to care for those who at one time were wanted by industry but who are now frequently thrown on the industrial scrap-heap.

As one solution of the problem there has been a growing demand in this country for old age pensions. Public poor relief, it is argued, is inadequate, demoralizing to the recipient and costly. Almshouse authorities in some places still tolerate conditions which a recent federal report describes as "appalling." Private relief is admittedly not able to meet so large a demand, and private institutions are too expensive for large numbers of the dependent aged. Furthermore, both public and private institutions sometimes separate couples that have lived together for years. *See* THE AGED. Old age insurance, involving contributions to a fund over a long period of years, has never taken root in this country. It would necessitate complicated administrative machinery, especially in the United States, where people frequently move from one state to another, and where the various state laws are likely to be far from uniform. Saving is difficult, as most workers do not receive a "saving wage." Old age pensions, on the con-

trary, are comparatively simple to administer; they enable the recipients to stay in the surroundings to which they are accustomed; they are, of all forms of aid, the most inexpensive; and they cause no insurance burden during the worker's younger years, when he should be rearing a family.

History and Present Status. The first general old age pension law in the United States was adopted in Alaska in 1915. It now provides for benefits of $25 a month for men 65 years of age and over, and $45 a month for women 60 years of age and over, as an alternative to care in the pioneers' home. The next laws were the Montana and Nevada statutes of 1923. The Wisconsin law was enacted in 1925, the Kentucky law in 1926, the Colorado and Maryland laws in 1927, and by the close of 1929—with the four laws included which were passed in that year, and are referred to in a later section—the total number of states in the country having laws providing for pensions to aged dependents was brought to 10, in addition to the Territory of Alaska. Up to the end of 1929 the most substantial results in pension payments have been in Alaska, Montana, and Wisconsin. The state enactments in Colorado, Maryland, Nevada, and Kentucky have been disappointing owing to county option features.

All of these laws, with the exception of the pioneer Alaska statute, but including subsequent amendments to that law, are based upon the "standard bill" drafted at a conference held in 1922 at the suggestion of the American Association for Labor Legislation. This standard proposal provides that pensions not to exceed one dollar a day be granted to qualified applicants, 70 years of age or upwards, who have been United States citizens for 15 years, have resided for 15 continuous years in the state, and do not possess property valued in excess of $3,000. Administration is through a state commission and county boards, and expenses are borne equally by the county and state.

In some laws slight variations are made from these provisions. The Nevada law sets the age requirement at 60 (the lowest of all), the Maryland, Utah, and Wyoming laws require that applicants must have attained the age of 65. In Montana and Utah the maximum benefit is $25 a month, in Wyoming it is $30 a month, and in Kentucky it is $250 a year. In Kentucky annual incomes of beneficiaries must not exceed $400, and property must not exceed $2,500 in value; in Wyoming annual incomes must not exceed $360. Of all the laws enacted up to the end of 1929, the California and Wyoming laws, adopted in 1929, are particularly outstanding and mark a departure in pension legislation. These laws are statewide and compulsory, in conformity with the approved standards; every qualified applicant in the state is eligible and no involved county option is included.

The groundwork for this comparatively recent legislation was laid by organizations which for many years worked for its passage. Since 1922 the Fraternal Order of Eagles and the American Association for Labor Legislation have continuously championed pension legislation; and they were the first to arouse public interest in the problem through educational and legislative campaigns in different states. The American Federation of Labor and state federations of labor have also advocated pension systems. In 1927 the Association for Old Age Security was organized for work in this particular field and has been active in state campaigns since then, particularly in New York State. A committee of the legislature in that state was appointed during 1929 to report on the subject by February 15, 1930.

Legislation, 1929. Few if any fields of social legislation were so conspicuously active during the year as the field here considered. In over half of the more than 40 legislatures convening during the year old age pension bills were considered, and pension laws were passed in four states, California (Ch. 530), Minnesota (Ch. 47), Utah (Ch. 76), and Wyoming (Ch. 87).

CONSULT: Beman, Lamar T. (compiler): *Old Age Pensions*, 1927 (includes a bibliography); Reports of state departments or commissions in Massachusetts (1925), Pennsylvania (1925), and California (1928); National Civic Federation, Industrial Welfare Department: *Extent of Old Age Dependency*, 1928; Epstein, Abraham: *The Challenge of the Aged*, 1928; Bardwell, Francis: *The Adventure of Old Age*, 1926; Deardorff, Neva R., and others: "The Non-Institutional Aged Poor," in *American Labor Legislation Review*, June, 1929 (a report of a study made by the Welfare Council of New York City, in cooperation with the American Association for Labor Legislation and the Fraternal Order of Eagles); *American Labor Legislation Review*, published by the American Association for Labor Legislation (a department each month containing notes and articles on old age pensions); *Old Age Security Herald*, published by the American Association for Old Age Security; and papers read before the Chicago Conference on the Care of the Aged (to be held in March, 1930, and to appear in the June, 1930, issue of *Social Service Review*).

JOHN B. ANDREWS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

ORAL HYGIENE. *See* MOUTH HYGIENE.

ORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL FORCES. *See* articles included in Group 10 of TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

ORGANIZED CHARITY. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

ORGANIZED LABOR. Trade unionism in the United States began in 1792 in Philadelphia with the organization of a union of shoemakers. In 1866 the first real attempt in the direction of a national body came when the National Labor Union was organized. It launched the eight-hour movement, became a political party, and came to an end in 1872. Meanwhile, in 1869 the Noble Order of the Knights of Labor had been founded and became for a time a national labor organization of real significance. It reached a membership of 700,000 in 1886 and after that declined. Workers of all trades were to be united in the local unions, though there was an inevitable tendency toward craft organization. The organization finally went on the rocks by virtue of its own contradictory policies and its conflict with the rising force of "pure and simple" trade unionism. The American Federation of Labor gives the year 1881 as the date of its origin. A convention participated in by delegates from national trade unions met in that year and established the Federation of Organized Trades and Labor Unions of the United States and Canada. It was reorganized under its present name in 1886, and now represents 75 per cent of the trade union membership of the United States and Canada.

Present Status. The American Federation of Labor is, as its name implies, a federation of organizations. In 1929, according to the report of the secretary, these included 105 national and international unions, together with 388 local and so-called "federal" unions, which are affiliated directly with the Federation because they do not have membership in any national trade organization. Individuals who were members of the 28,865 locals belonging to national and international unions, or of the directly affiliated locals, numbered 2,933,545. Being a federation of unions and not itself a trade union, the source of authority with respect to trade union activity lies elsewhere than in the Federation. Its only power over its constituent membership lies in its right to determine the conditions under which an organization may become or remain a part of the Federation. This leads to the principle known as "trade autonomy." Each constituent union manages its own affairs without official interference. Outside of these two principles there is very little that can be labeled as fundamental Federation policy. Of course the organization has great influence, and in practice helps to determine the policy of constituent unions more than these statements would suggest.

The United States Bureau of Labor Sta-

tistics lists 42 national unions not affiliated with the Federation, with a membership of 820,824 in June, 1929. Most of these unions are relatively insignificant, the bulk of the membership appearing in five organizations —the Amalgamated Clothing Workers and the four train service brotherhoods. There appear to be three outstanding reasons for the existence of these independent organizations. Some of them, like the railway brotherhoods, were organized before the Federation came into existence and are noted for their independence and pride of craft. Others, like the Amalgamated Clothing Workers, represent secession movements, having broken away from some organization affiliated with the Federation on account of internal conflict or difference in policy. Unions in a third group have left the Federation or have organized independently on account of a fundamental difference in objective or philosophy. This accounts for the Industrial Workers of the World and the so-called "dual" unions now being organized under Communist auspices among clothing workers and coal miners and in the textile industry.

The effort to organize the workers has had its greatest success in building construction, transportation, and the printing trades. It has failed most notably in manufacturing and in basic industries such as lumber, oil producing, and mining. Metal mines are now almost altogether unorganized. Bituminous coal mining is hard to classify because the present situation may be only temporary, but for various reasons the United Mine Workers have almost lost their foothold in that industry. Organization is negligible in oil producing and refining, and nonexistent in lumbering, unless one counts 10,000 workers included in what is apparently a company union and to which employers also belong. The most noteworthy unorganized areas in manufacturing include the automobile industry, in which the automobile workers' union claims 1,500 members; iron and steel, which under the most liberal estimate of union membership possible is not three per cent organized; textiles, with a possible four per cent organization; chemicals, in which the amount of trade unionism might be described as a "trace"; and rubber products, in which unionism seems to be wholly unknown.

The United States Bureau of Labor Statistics reports as of June, 1929, a total membership of 4,331,251 in all unions, both within and without the American Federation of Labor—a decrease since 1926 of 112,272. Detailed figures indicate that there have been important gains in the building trades and in public service, while heavy losses have been sustained in mining, transportation, and in the clothing trades. It would be an error, however, to assume that the general trend of trade union membership has been downward. What has taken place can best be understood by comparing one period with another. In 1913 the membership of the American Federation of Labor was 1,996,004, the peak of achievement up to that time. It rose in 1914, dropped somewhat in 1915, and then rose steadily to 4,078,740 in 1920. After this followed an uninterrupted decline to 2,803,966 in 1926, and then a rise to 2,933,545 in 1929. Thus it appears that the lowest membership since the war was 40 per cent above the highest membership preceding it, and that of 1929 was 47 per cent above. The average for the last seven years, during which membership has fluctuated only 130,000, is 62 per cent above the average of the last four years preceding the war. It is obvious, therefore, that the post-war situation is one of substantial gain. At the same time it is to be noted that since the heavy losses of 1921–1923, membership gains have not been outstanding.

Critics of Federation policy are inclined to attribute the comparatively static condition in the last few years to a lack of aggressive leadership. They point to the total withdrawal from activity in the steel industry following the strike of 1919, to the failure to take any steps to organize the automobile industry even after formally deciding in 1926 to proceed in that direction, and in general

to the meager evidences of organizing activity in fields not already unionized. A minority group which is dissatisfied with both the industrial and the political policies of the Federation has organized the Conference for Progressive Labor Action for the purpose of developing a more aggressive leadership and organizing a labor party. A more decidedly critical attitude is, of course, that of the Communists, who have abandoned the announced policy of a few years ago of "boring from within," and are now organizing separate unions under Communist auspices. Efforts in this direction are being made in the clothing trades, the textile industry, and in the coal mines.

The policies of trade unions in the industrial field are fairly well known. Reference may more profitably be made, therefore, to other policies. One that has received the widest attention in recent years is the organization of so-called "labor banks." They differ from other banks in their ownership, in paying more attention to the needs of persons of limited income, and in taking action at times with a view to strengthening trade unionism. They are, of course, the depositories of trade union funds, and investment in the stock of such banks has, in some cases, provided unions with an attractive rate of return. The first labor bank was organized by the Machinists Union in 1920. In 1926 there were 36 banks, with total resources of $126,000,000, but in 1929 the number had declined to 22, with resources amounting to $108,000,000. The labor movement is also much interested in education and is responsible for many classes organized by local unions and central labor bodies, and for several schools carried on by independent enterprise but with the cooperation of organized labor. *See* WORKERS' EDUCATION.

Other activities of the labor movement include health work, research, housing, and insurance. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers has worked out a system of unemployment insurance through the trade agreement, and similar plans are coming to be a feature of agreements of other unions in the needle trades. Within the last two years a life insurance company has been organized with the stock exclusively in the hands of trade unions and with officers taken from the labor movement. The electrical workers in New York City and in St. Louis have a combined life insurance and old-age pension plan, provided for in the agreement, with premiums paid by the employers. Similar agreements between the Street Car Men's Union and their employers, covering life insurance and sick benefits, have been worked out in several cities. Benefit funds of different sorts are maintained by 95 international unions affiliated with the American Federation of Labor, and from these funds over $32,000,000 were paid to beneficiaries in 1928, about half being in the form of death benefits.

An important development in recent years is known as "union management cooperation." This involves the assumption by the union of some responsibility for efficient and economical production in return for recognition of the union by the management and a sharing of the benefits of lowered production costs. Notable examples of this sort of activity include the so-called "B. and O. plan," involving the Baltimore and Ohio Railroad and the Machinists Union, now adopted by several other railroads, the arrangement between the Textile Workers Union and the Naumkeag Cotton Mills at Salem, Mass., and similar activities of the Amalgamated Clothing Workers. Other efforts in the direction of industrial peace are those resulting in the setting up of continuous machinery of arbitration. This movement has reached its highest development in certain of the needle trades.

In its attitude toward labor legislation the Federation has followed the lead of its late president, Samuel Gompers, who was always suspicious of any attempt by the legislature to interfere with matters normally entering into the trade agreement. He was in favor of laws affecting safety and health, but was unalterably opposed to a legal limitation of hours of work and minimum wage legisla-

tion for men, and was very skeptical of the value of social insurance. Experience with workmen's compensation has lined up the unions solidly behind it, and there is coming to be a more favorable attitude toward all forms of social insurance. The most recent convention of the Federation came out more definitely than ever before in favor of old-age pensions. In general, however, the Federation and its constituent parts are still opposed to wage and hour legislation. They are committed to an industrial rather than a legislative program, and the laws about which they are most concerned are those designed to curb the power of the courts to issue injunctions in labor disputes, and laws declaring anti-union or "yellow dog" contracts void as against public policy.

Developments and Events, 1929. The events in trade union development which can be specifically related to the year 1929 are chiefly the industrial disputes of the year. The number of strikes, as reported by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, was 903. This was somewhat greater than for either of the two years preceding—629 in 1928, and 734 in 1927—but the strikes in those years involved more workers than in 1929. Outstanding industrial disputes of the year involved shoe workers in various cities in Massachusetts; the results of these, upon the whole, appear to have been negative. An interesting outcome of one strike was the appointment of a professor of economics as manager of the Shoe Workers' Union at Haverhill, Mass., this being the condition on which the shoe manufacturers were willing to continue the agreement. Successful strikes were conducted by different groups of workers on women's clothing in New York City, having as their purpose the strengthening of the union and elimination from the trade of contract shops tending to break down industrial standards. The Amalgamated Clothing Workers, operating in the field of men's clothing, conducted a successful strike in Philadelphia, which resulted in a change in most of the factories there from a non-union to a union basis. A prolonged and bitter strike was that of street-car workers which began in July in New Orleans. Numerous efforts at arbitration failed, and while at the end of the year the cars were being operated by non-union men, the strike was technically still in effect.

The most notable development of the year in industrial disputes was that of textile workers in the South. Strikes in rayon and cotton mills, in which there had previously been no trade unionism, took place in Tennessee, North and South Carolina, and Georgia. These strikes attracted much attention because of the increasing importance of the southern textile industry. Due to the lower wages and longer hours generally prevailing in them, the mills in that section had been regarded for some time as constituting a menace to their northern competitors, and northern capital had been attracted to the South in order to avail itself of what was considered more favorable conditions. The strikes were regarded as a challenge to the continuance of these lower labor standards. Both Communist and American Federation of Labor unions were involved. Violence of various kinds and degrees manifested itself. Labor leaders were kidnapped and flogged. In Marion, N. C., six men on the picket line were shot and killed by deputy sheriffs, and at Gastonia, N. C., the Chief of Police died from a gunshot wound said to have been inflicted by strike leaders. Seven of the latter were convicted on this charge and sentenced to long terms in the penitentiary. At Gastonia a woman striker was shot and killed while on her way to attend a strike meeting. As a result of the new interest in organization indicated by these strikes, the American Federation of Labor at its convention in October decided to take steps toward the better organization of labor throughout the South.

Another development of the year, of major importance, involves the United Mine Workers and resulted from its recent heavy loss in membership. The one strongly or-

ganized district in the bituminous coal field is that of Illinois. A struggle for the control of this district between the district officers and John Lewis, President of the United Mine Workers, led to a movement for the reorganization of the Union.

CONSULT: Commons and associates: *Documentary History of American Industrial Society* (10 volumes), 1911; Commons and associates: *History of Labour in the United States*, 1921; Perlman, Selig: *History of Trade Unionism in the United States*, 1922; Brissenden, Paul: *The I. W. W., a Study of American Syndicalism*, 1920; American Federation of Labor: *History, Encyclopedia, and Reference Book*, 1924, and *Annual Proceedings;* Rand School: *The American Labor Year Book*, 1916–1929; Gompers, Samuel: *Seventy Years of Life and Labor*, 1925; Powderly, Terence V.: *Thirty Years of Labor*, 1890; Ware, Norman: *The Industrial Worker, 1840 to 1860*, 1924; and *The Labor Movement in the United States, 1860 to 1895*, 1929; Hoxie, Robert, F.: *Trade Unionism in the United States*, 1923; Industrial Relations Section, Princeton University: *The Labor Banking Movement in the United States*, 1929; and United States Bureau of Labor Statistics: Bulletins on *Care of Aged Persons in the United States* (No. 489), 1929, *Handbook of Labor Statistics* (No. 491), 1929, *History of Wages in the United States from Colonial Times to 1928* (No. 499), 1929, and *Handbook of American Trade Unions* (No. 506), 1929.

JOHN A. FITCH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

ORGANIZED LABOR, WOMEN. Economics to the industrial woman embraces much more than the day's work at the machine. The working man has perhaps outdistanced her in developing and using his bargaining power, but this weakness of hers, paradoxically, is due to her greater endurance and the complexity of her problem. Though a breadwinner, she is still in many cases the homemaker; her responsibilities stay with her outside the workshop. Therefore the industrial woman, whether articulate or not, is deeply conscious of the whole social fabric—home, parents, children, and human happiness in general—an intuitive concern common to all women. Naturally, then, women within the labor movement feel that they measure economic welfare in more human terms than trade union men are accustomed to do. They have therefore come into closer association with the social worker, whose whole task is concerned with the problems of human relationships.

History and Present Status. The year 1818 saw the first power loom operated by a woman (the cotton gin had been invented in 1793), and by 1825 working women's organized activities had begun to attract attention. Dover, N. H., in 1828 witnessed the first women's strike; three or four hundred cotton mill operatives marched out of their plant, protesting fines and other "obnoxious regulations." In the same year, men's unions were first organized, but they took little interest in working women's rebellions until 1865, when the National Labour Union voted support to the "sewing women and daughters of toil." They did not, however, advocate trade unions for them.

The women shoemakers were the first group to have a national union of their own. It was known as the Daughters of St. Crispin and was formed in 1860. The Knights of Labor, in 1878, stood for "equal pay for equal work," but at that time refused membership to women. Later, women were admitted, and by 1887, 13,200 of the 80,000 members were women. In 1890 the first woman delegate attended a convention of the American Federation of Labor, which had been formed in 1881. The National Women's Trade Union League of America came into being in 1903. It was a new grouping within the labor movement—a federation of trade unions which had women members, and with an individual membership of all supporting its objects. Formed during the American Federation of Labor convention in Boston, it followed the line of the British Women's Trade Union League and received encouragement from two fraternal delegates present from England. The first statement

of the League's objective was: "To assist in the organization of women wage workers into trade unions, and thereby to help them secure conditions necessary for healthful and efficient work, and to obtain a just return for such work." The woman in industry was not as yet recognized as an important factor in the whole social scheme. At that time very few women were union members and the 12 hour day was the rule, with $5.00 as the average weekly wage. The Women's Trade Union League became spokesman for all industrial women—the interpreter of their problems. In four years leagues were organized in Boston, New York, and Chicago; and at the first convention, in 1907, Margaret Dreier Robins was elected to the presidency, an office which she held for 15 years. National headquarters were established in Chicago. The year 1909 saw the revolt of 30,000 women garment workers in New York, and the League adequately met the call for service. In 1910, 40,000 men and women garment workers struck in Chicago, and the League's signal service in that epochmaking struggle is a matter of history.

The convention of 1913 gave impetus to the cause of workers' education by establishing its Training School for Active Workers in the Labor Movement, the first of its kind. The plan grew out of the conviction that "groups cannot be led from the outside, but from within the fellowship of their daily life and labor must their salvation come." It was Mrs. Robins who had the vision that some day colleges would open their doors to working women—a vision which has become a reality at Bryn Mawr, Barnard, the University of Wisconsin, and the Southern Summer School.

From 1911 to 1921 *Life and Labor* was the League's official organ, the first magazine in the country devoted to women's industrial problems. In 1922 *The Life and Labor Bulletin* succeeded it. This magazine covers the activities of the National Women's Trade Union League and some of the events in the labor movement.

The Women's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor grew out of a federal investigation inaugurated by the League in 1905 and has had its constant support from the beginning.

During the World War the League lent its best trained workers to the government. It formulated industrial standards and insisted upon their maintenance during the war period. In 1919 the League called the International Congress of Working Women, with delegates from many countries of the world—the first gathering of its kind in history. The second Congress was held in Geneva, Switzerland, in 1921, and the third in Vienna, in 1923. Problems common to working women everywhere were discussed, and the need for international standards recognized.

Nearly 9,000,000 women in the United States today earn their own living. Of these over 4,000,000 are in industry and eligible to trade union membership, but only about 250,000 are organized. In most instances men and women are organized in "mixed locals," though about 15 of the international unions have separate women's locals, a plan followed chiefly in industries where women's tasks differ entirely from men's, and where they receive lower wages. Women's locals in the bookbinding industry have developed strength by this separation, men and women bookbinders seldom competing for a job. Separate locals have also been successfully organized among the electrical workers, ladies' garment workers, and upholsterers. Organization is most complete in the needle trades and least complete in the many food trades—those represented in stockyards, canning, and so forth.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the organization and educational interests of the American Federation of Labor and the Women's Trade Union League were directed particularly toward the southern textile mills. In Elizabethton, Tenn., after the strike of 5,500 rayon operatives, mass education became necessary, since the workers were scattered over an area of 30 miles. The League gave its special attention to that

center and to Marion, N. C. Its convention featured two topics: "Wages, Are They High or Low?" and "The New Industrial South," thus emphasizing old problems now faced by thousands from the agricultural districts who are entering industry.

Legislation, 1929. The national and local agencies in this field were active during the year in support of successful bills affecting women's work in several states. Reference to those laws is included under "Legislation, 1929" in the several articles relating to women in industry. See Group 7 in TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

CONSULT: Wolfson, Theresa: *The Woman Worker and the Trade Unions*, 1926; Henry, Alice: *Women and the Labor Movement*, 1927; also publications of the National Women's Trade Union League of America, including the proceedings of its conventions, its periodicals, and other literature (See its listing in Part II of the Year Book), and *Federationist*, August, 1929, a special number on the woman movement.

ELISABETH CHRISTMAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

ORPHAN ASYLUMS. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

OUTDOOR ATHLETICS. *See* AMATEUR OUTDOOR ATHLETICS AND SPORTS.

OUTDOOR RELIEF. *See* PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES.

OUT-PATIENT DEPARTMENTS OF HOSPITALS. *See* CLINICS AND OUT-PATIENT DEPARTMENTS.

OVERSEERS OF THE POOR. *See* PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES.

PAGEANTS. There are two principal types of pageants—historical and social. The latter aim to express an idea or an ideal of a civic, educational, or religious character. Pageants may be produced in an outdoor or indoor place; or may take the form of parades on land or water. The former offer wide opportunity for the dramatic and allied arts; the latter are more restricted. Both types have had marked development in recent years.

Pageants are presented under both public and private auspices, the historical type falling under the former, and the social, for the most part, under the latter. Town, city, county, and state frequently appropriate funds toward expenses for historical pageants. The practice of underwriting subscriptions by organizations and individuals often increases the amounts obtained. Educational, religious, social, and art organizations are largely responsible for financing the social types of pageants. For instance, in the South and West particularly, annual pageants are held, mostly in festival form, which are expressions of community enterprise and communal art.

Outstanding in the furtherance of historical pageantry is the State of New York, which for several years past has voted substantial appropriations for use by the Department of Education and its state historian. During the last three years nearly 1,000,000 people have witnessed the historical-educational dramas given in the state, and some 20,000 citizens participated as actors or on committees. Conspicuous in furthering the social type of pageant is the Methodist Episcopal Church, which makes an appropriation in its annual budget for the promotion of pageantry. There is general employment of this form of drama among religious denominations upon such days as Easter and Christmas, and among secular organizations upon patriotic holidays and other occasions.

The trend in pageant production is toward larger expenditures and corresponding receipts. Owing to improved methods of organization, publicity, and production, expenses are now usually covered by receipts, and in an increasing number of instances, particularly in large-scale historical pag-

eantry, some revenue is derived. On the creative and production side there is to be noted a tendency toward greater use of motivated symbolic or allegorical form; and also the increased use of music, in connection with historical drama, in order to provide relief from a strictly episodic program. These tendencies are indicated by the utilization of such dramatic and lyric pantomime as the dance, tableaux, sculptural mass, and processionals. In addition to the educational institutions already offering courses in pageantry, the Drama Department of Yale University has recently announced a course for the year 1929–1930.

CONSULT: Sanford, A. P., Mrs. (compiler): *Pageants of Our Nation* (two volumes); 1929 and additional volumes to be published in 1930; Federal Council of Churches: *Religious Drama, 1923–1926* (including pageantry); and Bates, Esther Willard: *The Art of Producing Pageants*, 1925.

PERCY JEWETT BURRELL

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

PARENT EDUCATION. The term "parent education" has come to signify a consistent and continuous program for making available to parents the most reliable knowledge and best current thought which the sciences have increasingly contributed on the problems of child development. The impetus for parent education has come partly from parents themselves who have been confronted with conditions and situations for which they were not prepared, either by training or by previous experience, and have sought the help of the specialist and the expert; partly it has come from educators and agencies concerned with child development and aware of the need to reach back of the child to the parent.

History and Present Status. In 1888 a group of parents living in New York City organized as the Society for the Study of Child Nature. As an outgrowth of this, further groups were formed and later affiliated as the Federation for Child Study, which in 1924 became the Child Study Association of America. In 1897 the National Congress of Parents and Teachers (first called the National Congress of Mothers) was organized in direct response to parental needs and desires for further education. The growth of the parent education movement continued at a comparatively slow rate. Increasingly, however, the schools and other agencies which had taken over various functions of the home became aware of the difficulty of carrying on their work without the effective cooperation of parents; and these agencies made increasing demands upon the parents which the latter were unprepared to meet, thus adding momentum to the movement initiated by the few parents who had already felt the need for more educational aid.

In 1924 the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial allotted its first grants in aid of the educational and research work of child development institutes at various universities. Similar grants were made to the American Association of University Women and the Monmouth County Organization for Social Service, for work in parent education, and to the Child Study Association of America, which had been continuously concerned with parent education, for the extension of its activities. Through a grant from the same source a training course for leaders in parent education was established at Teachers College, Columbia University, with the Child Study Association providing field work and source material. In 1925 a permanent organization, the National Council of Parent Education, was formed to coordinate efforts in this field. Sixty-one organizations are members of this Council; they represent governmental agencies (3 national, 17 state, and 3 municipal), private agencies (6 national, one state and county, and 5 municipal), as well as 4 magazines, 3 private schools, 9 universities and 12 unclassified agencies.

As a result of all these developments,

parent education appears today in a wide range of activities directed either wholly or in part to meeting immediate concrete problems of family or individual adjustment, or to the preparation of men and women—still chiefly the latter, although men in growing numbers—for better understanding and skill in the management of children in the home. In some cases parent education constitutes the principal objective of the program; in others it has been adopted as an outgrowth of a program primarily concerned with some branch of child development or adult education. Universities and child research centers, schools and nursery schools, research institutions and extension services, clinics, juvenile courts, welfare and health agencies (both public and private), and religious and social organizations are in one way or another concerning themselves with the problems of parents and parent-child relationships. Thus the content of parent education is being rapidly carried over into the many activities which touch individual families through psychiatric social workers, public health nurses, and workers in settlement houses and mothers' clubs. (For a discussion of the contributions made by nursery schools and other centers of research, *see* NURSERY SCHOOLS and CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH.)

The most extensive of the national programs definitely directed to parent education today are those of the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, the Child Study Association of America, and the American Association of University Women. Over a period of years these organizations have carried on systematic work through study groups in all parts of the country, and have continuously developed material and published literature relating to parent education. The National Council on Parent Education has begun a survey of the general field, and during 1930 will be able to report how many groups of this character are functioning.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. So rapid has been the increase in study groups that the problem of available leadership has become a serious one, constituting a limiting factor in the growth of the work. Efforts to train leaders—both lay and professional—are going forward at many points. Universities, teacher-training institutions, and child research stations are offering courses especially planned for this purpose, including field work and observed practice, seminars and institutes. Nursery schools and study groups definitely offer their facilities to leaders and potential leaders for purposes of observation and practice. In New York State several local organizations are cooperating with the Department of Education in conducting a series of seminars for lay leaders. The California Department of Education, in cooperation with city departments, is training leaders on the job. Fellowships and scholarships in parent education have been made available through a grant from the Spelman Fund. They are administered by the Fellowship Committee of the National Council of Parent Education. One fellowship and 16 scholarships were awarded for 1929–1930.

CONSULT: National Society for the Study of Education: *Year Book, 1929, Pre-School and Parental Education;* Lindeman and Thurston: *Problems for Parent Educators* (National Council for Parent Education), 1929; *Concerning Parents —A Symposium* (New Republic), 1926; Child Study Association of America: *Why Do Parents Need Special Training,* 1926; Lombard, Ellen C.: *Parent Education, 1926–1928.* (Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior, Bulletin No. 15, 1929.)

SIDONIE M. GRUENBERG

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

THE PARENT-TEACHER MOVEMENT represents an effort on the part of parents to cooperate with the public schools in the work which they are doing for children. Cooperation involves, first of all, understanding what the schools are trying to do and why;

second, learning what is still needed in the way of personnel or equipment to bring the schools up to acceptable standards, and in many instances helping to provide what is lacking; and third, educating one's self as father or mother to a more adequate knowledge of one's own children and a better comprehension of the effect which home conditions, including parental attitudes, exercise upon accomplishment and behavior in the classroom. The first groups of parents who associated themselves together for these purposes were called by such names as home and school federations, mothers' clubs, or parent-teacher associations. An early campaign under the auspices of the Congress of Mothers for the extension of this work helped to popularize the name of parent-teacher association, and most American organizations in this field are now so called, although the international organization is known as the International Federation of Home and School. All these associations are carried on by volunteers. They vary as to specific projects under way at any given time, but share always the same purpose, which is to enable parents to work with the schools in understanding and educating their children.

Though the aims of these associations are primarily educational, their programs deal largely with problems which lie in the fields of the specialized social agencies, whose work is described elsewhere in this volume. *See* School Hygiene, Public Health Nursing, Child Study and Parent Education, Mental Deficiency, Community Centers, and Recreation.

History and Present Status. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers was organized in Washington in 1897. Three years later it was incorporated as the National Congress of Mothers. The idea originated with Mrs. Theodore W. Birney, of Georgia, through whom Mrs. Phoebe A. Hearst, of California, became interested. For four years Mrs. Hearst helped to finance the work. In 1908 the name of the organization was changed to the National Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Associations. In 1924, in justice to fathers who were taking an active interest in the movement, the name was again changed, to the present one—the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. By 1900 there were seven state branches; Nevada is now the only unorganized state. In April, 1929, there were 1,382,741 members in approximately 20,000 associations in 48 states, the District of Columbia, Alaska, and Hawaii. These comprise preschool, grade school, high school, college, and church school types of organization, as well as study circles. Three secretaries carry on the work from the headquarters in Washington.

The national platform of the Congress is the seven cardinal objectives of education: health and safety; worthy home membership; mastery of the tools, technics, and spirit of learning; vocational and economic effectiveness; faithful citizenship; wise use of leisure; and ethical character. In policy it is non-sectarian, non-commercial, and non-political. The outstanding characteristics of the movement are training for leadership, parent education, and working for the physical and mental health of the school children, especially through the so-called "summer round-up." This round-up was inaugurated in 1925 as a nation-wide campaign to send to school in the entering grades a class of children 100 per cent free from remedial defects. Examinations are made by the school physicians or by members of the Academy of Medicine in the town and the follow-up is conducted through the parent-teacher associations, either by the mothers or by nurses.

Both because of the financial demands of the Congress and because large cities often feel that they do not need help from outside, several strong organizations have grown up independently, and remain unaffiliated with the national organization. The largest of these is the United Parents' Association in New York City. Boston and Minneapolis have also developed their own organizations, and there are many associations in towns and

rural communities which are not members of the Congress. It is impossible to give any adequate account of the work carried on by all these independent associations or of the number of members which they represent. The association in New York City has 15,000 members, the one in Boston has 20,000, and the Minneapolis association has 114 schools organized. This would indicate that there are many thousand members of independent associations in the United States. The program of the independent groups, however, is quite similar in general to that of the national organization.

Developments and Events, 1929. Twenty-six cities to which questionnaires were sent in 1929 reported more than 100 new associations with a large total membership increase. The tendencies reported were toward the organization of more associations in high schools and in schools serving colored neighborhoods, and also in parochial schools. Classes in child study and in leadership and publicity increased both in number and in size. Several associations reported that they had progressed from the study of the little child to the study of the adolescent; others had turned to the universities for leadership, where their members took courses for credit. The summer round-ups in the different states were reported to be increasing in popularity and in the number of associations participating. There was an increase in the number of district meetings composed of county councils, and many institutes were held. There seemed to be a growing confidence in the work on the part of school superintendents and principals.

CONSULT: Mason, M. F.: *Parents and Teachers*, 1928; Butterworth, Julian E.: *Parent-Teacher Associations*, 1928; National Congress of Parents and Teachers: *Proceedings*, 1928 and 1929; and the following pamphlets: *Parent-Teacher Association* (University of North Carolina), 1929; and *Program Discussion Material—Rural Parent Teacher Associations* (Nebraska Department of Public Instruction), 1927. See also issues of *Child Welfare Magazine* (National Congress of Parents and Teachers) and *School Life* (Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior).

ANNA BEACH PRATT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

PARENTAL SCHOOLS. *See* COMPULSORY EDUCATION and DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE.

PARKS, PLAYGROUNDS, AND RECREATION CENTERS. The pioneer park builders and planners of America defined the park as a place where urban inhabitants could obtain recreation from the peaceful enjoyment of scenery which was rural, sylvan, and natural in character. This pioneer conception of parks and their recreational functions began to change in the eighties with the introduction of sand courts and outdoor gymnasiums in Boston as part of the children's playground movement, and in the two succeeding decades it had expanded into a recreation movement comprising all age groups. The new movement changed the uses of many parks, and resulted in the establishment of new areas devoted almost exclusively to children's playgrounds, playfields, athletic fields, stadiums, neighborhood recreation parks, swimming and boating centers, and golf courses. After nearly three-quarters of a century of development in the United States the term "park" has come to mean any area of land and water set aside for outdoor recreational purposes, whether of a passive or an active nature. The present conception is that even the area used most actively for recreational purposes should be developed with as much beauty as is consistent with its primary purposes.

In addition to the great increase in active recreational uses of parks there has been a marked development of recreational opportunities throughout the country under special recreation departments, other municipal departments, and educational departments. The federal government, several

states, and a number of county governments have also developed their parks and recreational services extensively. Parks were probably the concern of municipalities first, then of the federal government, then of the states, and finally of the counties.

A special study of municipal parks, covering the period from 1925 to 1926, showed 1,681 localities maintaining 248,627 acres of parks. The United States Census Bureau (*Report on the Financial Statistics of Cities for 1927*) reported that the value of properties held for park and recreational purposes by cities of 30,000 and over was over two billion dollars. The local park movement owes much to the public spirit of local citizens of wealth who have donated large areas. Some communities have no park acreage other than that donated, and a careful estimate indicates that about one-third of the total municipal park acreage of the country was acquired through gift.

The National Conference on State Parks reported in 1925 that there were nearly 7,000,000 acres of state parks in 43 states, including state forest and other areas set aside but not parks in the restricted sense. About 2,600,000 acres were classified as parks.

National parks are primarily areas preserved because of natural scenic or geological features of outstanding national value; national forests are areas primarily reserved for economic reasons, but which have had an increasing recreational use, particularly for camping, fishing, and hunting. Millions of individuals annually use national forests for recreational purposes. State parks are frequently for the preservation of special areas whose historic or natural features are primarily of state rather than national significance, but more and more areas are being set aside whose value is primarily scenic and recreational. County parks are of two general types: the suburban county park, which provides for several smaller residential communities the features generally provided by parks in cities; and the rural county park, which provides county camping grounds, places for rural picnics, field days, and similar recreational activities. The county park movement is still in its infancy and shows greatest development in metropolitan areas. Sixty-three counties in 1929 reported county parks, and 24 states had laws permitting counties to provide and maintain parks.

The *Year Book* of the National Recreation Association for 1929 reported the following local provisions for centers maintained under leadership: 763 cities had 7,681 playgrounds, of which about 17 per cent were open the year round; 136 cities had 397 playgrounds for colored children, of which about one-fourth were open the year round; 255 cities had 2,341 indoor recreation centers, of which about 20 per cent were open the year round; 41 cities had 86 indoor recreation centers for colored people, of which about 22 per cent were open the year round; 214 cities had special buildings used primarily for recreational purposes, 436 of which were open the year round; 30 cities had 38 community houses for the use of colored people, of which 25 were open the year round; 36 cities had 165 streets closed for street play conducted under leadership.

The *Year Book* showed also that most municipal recreation work was conducted by playground and recreation commissions, park commissions, and boards of education. In 259 cities private agencies administered recreation programs of the kind commonly furnished by municipalities. Such agencies included playground and recreation associations, community service organizations, women's clubs, civic and community leagues, parent-teacher associations, settlements, chambers of commerce, child welfare organizations, social service leagues, business men's service clubs, and many other local groups not primarily organized for recreation but including recreation among their activities. In 161 cities the recreation program was financed jointly by municipal and private funds. The bulk of the money available for community recreation service comes from public funds. In 1929 this amounted to about 84 per cent of the total.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year 37 cities reported the passage of bond issues for recreation, totaling over $4,500,000 and 46 cities reported the donation of 52 separate play areas. The reported value of 47 of these was nearly $1,000,000. Among the other significant developments of the year were the increasing provisions made for the recreational use of leisure time of adults, the growing importance of recreation planning as a part of city planning movements, the increasing practice by real estate men of setting aside recreation areas in new subdivisions, and the growing acceptance of recreation as a public responsibility. Many states also passed laws during the year permitting the development of public recreation service by different political units.

During the year surveys were made of local recreation situations and of the relation of recreation to other problems such as health, juvenile delinquency, and safety. Other studies related to the evaluation of activities, the psychological problems of play, and the effective administration of recreation programs and activities.

CONSULT: References under RECREATION, and National Recreation Association: *Parks—A Manual of Municipal and County Parks*, 1928, *County Parks*, 1930, *Play Areas—Their Design and Equipment*, 1928, *The Conduct of Playgrounds*, 1929, *The Conduct of Community Centers*, 1929, *Community Music*, 1926, *Community Drama*, 1926, and *Rural and Small Community Recreation*, 1929; Nelson, Beatrice W.: *State Recreation*, 1928; United States Department of Labor: *Park Recreation Areas in the United States* (No. 462), 1928; Bowen and Mitchell: *Theory and Practice of Organized Play*, 1927; and issues of *Parks and Recreation* (American Institute of Park Executives).

ARTHUR M. WILLIAMS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

PAROLE FOR ADULTS. Parole may be defined as a method by which prisoners who have served a portion of their sentences are released from penal institutions under the continued custody of the state, upon conditions which permit their reincarceration in the event of misbehavior. Parole requires an indefinite or indeterminate rather than a definite sentence at the time of commitment, in order that the state upon releasing prisoners may retain the power to imprison them for misconduct at any time until final discharge. Parole is to be distinguished from pardon, for the latter affords restoration of citizenship and complete freedom under no supervision. It is also to be distinguished from probation which, unlike parole, is granted before rather than after a period of imprisonment. *See* PROBATION FOR ADULTS and JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION. For parole for children, *see* DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE, and DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE, and for parole from institutions for the mentally ill, *see* MENTAL DISEASES.

The work of parole involves (a) the selection of prisoners who may safely be given their freedom, and (b) arrangements for personal supervision for a specified period. Ideally, parole selection should be based, in part, upon knowledge gained through careful social investigations, and supervision during parole should utilize the methods of social case work.

History and Present Status. Parole, in the form in which it is known today, is practiced only in America. It was first used in 1876, when the State of New York established its reformatory at Elmira. All commitments were made under sentences which specified no minimum terms. Prisoners were to earn release by their progress in the institution; they were to be set at liberty under supervision and to be subject to re-imprisonment if they failed to conduct themselves properly. From this beginning the practice of parole, with the use of the indefinite sentence, was extended to prisons and penitentiaries and even to local jails. Unfortunately the industrial, social, and moral training—which was the essence of the reformatory idea at Elmira—was usually disregarded. Parole was

taken over as if it possessed some merit in itself. Its use has spread more rapidly than the indefinite sentence or the reformatory system. In many states it has been made a regular method of release for all prisoners without regard to the nature of their original offense or the likelihood of their reformation. The laws of all the states except Mississippi and Virginia now provide for some form of parole. It is the principal means by which release from imprisonment is granted in the United States. Those who believe in the use of parole assume that boards of parole will be created, that they will make an exhaustive and painstaking study of each case before granting release, and that a sufficient staff of field agents will be provided to insure continuous, efficient and sympathetic supervision. Few American states begin to measure up to that standard.

In 20 states parole is treated merely as a form of executive clemency, and is granted by the governor or by a board of pardons. In 12 other states it is treated as an incidental item of penal administration, release being granted by state or institutional administrative boards. Only 13 states have created agencies to deal specifically with parole. Seven of these rely on part-time, unpaid, or ex-officio boards, and three use a single official to select prisoners for release. Only Ohio, Massachusetts, and Illinois have full time, salaried parole boards. Little attention is given in any state to a scientific selection of prisoners for parole release. Too much emphasis is placed upon such matters as the nature of the crime, prior criminal record, prison conduct, and the personal appearance of the applicant. Too little use is made of psychological and psychiatric tests and of social case work investigations. Too little attention is given to preparation of the parole environment.

Methods of supervision are similarly inadequate. Eighteen states and the federal government attempt to keep in touch with paroled persons by correspondence alone. Seven states attempt to interest "sponsors" or "next friends" in assuming the needed responsibility, and five others place the responsibility on local peace officers or, as in North Carolina, on county superintendents of public welfare. Fourteen states have no parole officers, a few of them relying on private agencies for the work of parole supervision. Thirteen states have only one officer, while at the other extreme New York has 14, and Illinois 40. Illinois is the only large state which has made an approach to adequate provision for this work. Its appropriation for the two years ending in 1929 was $1,466,200, of which $357,800 was for parole selection and $1,108,400 for supervision. For the most part supervision is merely a matter of clerical or police work. In but few instances has anything partaking of the nature of social case practice been attempted.

No state has yet established standards of technical competence for those who are charged with selection of prisoners for parole, nor has any state set up professional standards to govern the employment of field agents. Minnesota and Massachusetts have possibly gone as far in this direction as any state. In the former the State Board of Parole appoints as field agents "individuals who have a fair education and who are experienced in dealing with delinquents." Appointment in Massachusetts is on the basis of civil service examinations. The successful completion of these tests involves a certain minimum knowledge of the nature and purpose of parole, the state's parole laws, and the organization of its system. The questions attempt to gauge the applicant's probable reaction to certain problems which will be presented in his work. They are not of such a nature as to eliminate persons lacking technical training in social case work.

The salaries paid for parole work are generally not high enough to attract persons of real training or ability. Some states pay as little as $1,800; California and New Jersey pay a few officers $3,500 a year; the average for all states is probably from $2,000 to $2,500 per year.

Legislation, 1929. The three states which made the most significant changes in their parole systems during 1929 were Texas, Pennsylvania, and Ohio. Texas (Ch. 45) removed the power of parole from the prison commission and vested it in a newly created Board of Pardons and Paroles, with three members at a salary of $3,000 each. The Board is to report only upon cases referred to it by the governor, and its paroling power is limited to first offenders. One member, designated as "supervisor of paroles," is to obtain physical, mental and social data concerning all prisoners at the time of commitment, study them during confinement, make recommendations concerning their fitness for release, obtain employment for them when they leave prison, and supervise them during parole. Pennsylvania (No. 416) undertook to centralize its parole supervision by giving the State Board of Pardons, consisting of three ex officio members, complete jurisdiction over persons on parole. The attorney general, a member of the Board, is authorized to appoint a supervisor of paroles and "such field agents as may be necessary" and the Board is required to establish standards governing the selection of parole officers and the work of supervision. On request of the trustees of penal institutions, who have the power of parole, these field agents must furnish "detailed information concerning the personal, family, social, and industrial history of any prisoner and his probable environment during parole." Up to the end of the year the administration had done nothing to carry out the provisions of this law. Ohio (Laws, 113, p. 465) also centralized parole supervision by taking the function away from its several institutions and giving it to the State Department of Public Welfare, whose director was given authority to appoint and supervise field parole agents. California (Ch. 827) created county boards of parole commissioners to release the inmates of county jails. Other legislative changes of the year were of minor importance.

Because there is no central coordinating agency, journal, or conference specializing in the parole field, it is impossible to make any comprehensive reporting of improvements in administration and technique throughout the country.

CONSULT: For a survey of parole administration, Wilcox, Clair: *The Parole of Adults from State Penal Institutions*, constituting Part II of the Report of the Pennsylvania State Parole Commission, 1927; for an evaluation of the success of parole, Glueck, Sheldon, and Eleanor T.: *Five Hundred Criminal Careers*, 1930; for special investigations of parole in various states, Bruce, Burgess, Harno, and Landesco: *The Workings of the Indeterminate Sentence Law and the Parole System in Illinois*, 1928; Alger, George W.: *Board of Parole and Parole System*, New York, 1926; *Missouri Crime Survey*, 1926 (Chapter 11 on parole); *Report of the Minnesota Crime Commission*, 1927; and *Penal Problem in Ohio*, 1926; Borden, H. G.: "Factors for Predicting Parole Success," in *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, November, 1928; Glueck, S. and E. T.: "Predictability in the Administration of Criminal Justice," in *Mental Hygiene*, October, 1929, also in *Harvard Law Review*, January, 1929; and Wilcox, Clair: "Parole: Principles and Practice," in *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, November, 1929. See also annual or biennial reports of parole authorities, particularly in Minnesota, Michigan, and Ohio.

CLAIR WILCOX

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 592.

PAUPERS. *See* COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

PAWNBROKING. *See* SMALL LOANS.

PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS FOR ADULTS.

History and Present Status. America inherited its jail system from Great Britain and built places of detention similar to those which were denounced by John Howard in Europe. Village lockups were built of wood, many were located in cellars or attics, and often prisoners were cremated. Even to this

day crude wooden lockups exist in many village communities. A large proportion of the city police stations of America are primitive structures, unventilated, badly lighted, dirty, and unfit for human occupation. Early workhouses were usually located in the country, with rude and inflammable wooden buildings incapable of being kept in sanitary condition. In many of them it was customary for sleeping prisoners to be attached to long chains at night to prevent escapes. Equipment for cooking, feeding, and washing was of primitive types. The guards were ignorant, untrained, ill-paid, and overworked. The early state convict prisons, known as state prisons or penitentiaries, were usually built of stone or brick and were planned chiefly with a view to security. They were unventilated, ill-lighted, and insanitary. There was no plumbing, and provision for water supply and sewerage was inadequate. The most distinctive American prison of the early type was the Eastern Penitentiary at Philadelphia. It was built with a large cell for each man, 9 by 14 feet, with a little outside yard adjacent for exercise and fresh air. This prison was designed for solitary confinement and was used on that plan for many years.

In general these physical conditions have been much improved in recent years in particulars which cannot readily be specified within the limits of this article. The improvement has been greatest in the state prisons, although in a number of conspicuous instances old cell blocks built 100 years ago are still in use, little if any modified since the prisons were first opened. Neglect is still great in the matters of lighting, sanitation, classification, discipline and general morale in local jails and lockups. In the field of prison labor some progress has been made and more is hoped for under the provisions of the federal law on that subject passed in 1929. *See* PRISON LABOR.

Penal and reformatory institutions for adults are of seven classes: first, detention prisons for the confinement of prisoners awaiting trial; second, short-term prisons for persons convicted of misdemeanors and other petty offenses; third, convict prisons for the confinement of persons convicted of high crimes and felonies; fourth, adult reformatories for the treatment of persons who are believed to be inexperienced in crime or especially amenable to reformatory treatment; fifth, institutions for defective delinquents—persons who are found to have committed criminal acts because of feeblemindedness or other mental defect; sixth, hospitals for insane criminals; and seventh, prisons for women. The different classes of prisons above enumerated may be subdivided as shown in the succeeding paragraphs.

1. Detention prisons include: (a) City police stations and village lockups for the detention of persons arrested by city police officers, village marshals or constables, and held for a brief time until they can be brought before a municipal judge or justice of the peace; (b) county or municipal jails for the detention of persons awaiting the action of grand juries or civil courts (most of these jails are used also for the confinement of prisoners convicted of misdemeanors and petty offenses); (c) federal jails for the confinement of United States prisoners awaiting trial or serving short sentences. At present these are limited to one federal jail, known as Detention Headquarters, in the city of New York and a few small jails in the territory of Alaska.

2. Short-term prisons include: (a) Jails used both for prisoners awaiting trial and those serving sentence, in most states the jail sentences being limited to one year, though sometimes longer; (b) county or city workhouses, houses of correction, prison camps or prison farms used for the confinement of persons convicted of misdemeanors or other minor offenses; and (c) state houses of correction or prison farms for minor offenders, such as exist in Massachusetts, New Jersey, Indiana, and other states.

3. Prisons for persons convicted of

felonies and high crimes include: (a) State prisons, often known as penitentiaries; and (b) federal penitentiaries (three in number). In Pennsylvania and a few other states felons may be sentenced to county jails for a longer period than one year, but the general practice is to send such convicts to state prisons.

4. Adult reformatories include: (a) State reformatories, usually with a maximum commitment age of 25 or 30 years (in Missouri the adult and juvenile reformatories are combined); and (b) federal reformatories, one known as the District of Columbia Reformatory, at Lorton, Va., and the other known as the United States Industrial Reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio.

5. Institutions for defective delinquents. Such institutions have been established in the states of Massachusetts and New York. The classes received include feeble-minded persons, epileptics, and other mental defectives who are found to have irresistible tendencies to crime. These individuals are committed without time limit. They may remain for life or may be released on parole when the parole board is convinced that they can be set at large without danger to the community. This is the complete application of the theory of the indeterminate sentence. New York is about to establish a second institution for defective delinquents and similar institutions are proposed in other states. *See* PAROLE FOR ADULTS.

6. Hospitals for insane criminals. Formerly such persons were sent to ordinary state hospitals; but in many states separate institutions for them have been established. Most of these institutions receive patients who have become insane in the state prisons, or those who have committed crimes and have been found to be insane by the court at the time of trial. Hospitals for insane criminals are usually either separate sections of the state prisons or separate institutions controlled by the prison administration.

7. Prisons for women. As a rule, women are kept in the same enclosure and within the same building in which male prisoners are confined, in the different classes of prisons which have here been enumerated. There are, however, some important exceptions. In the cities of Detroit, Cleveland, and Philadelphia there are separate houses of detention provided for women arrested by the police, and they are in exclusive charge of female officers. In Akron and Philadelphia jail prisoners awaiting court action are kept in separate jails. New York City is now building a house of detention for women for about 200 prisoners, both those in the custody of the police and those who are awaiting trial. There are state prisons for women in Delaware, Illinois, Indiana, New York, and Vermont; and state reformatories for women in Arkansas, California (building), Connecticut, Iowa, Kansas, Maine, Massachusetts, Michigan (Detroit), Minnesota, Nebraska, New Jersey, New York, North Carolina, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, and Wisconsin. Detroit has built a very elaborate reformatory for women, with a capacity of 272, and legislation has been adopted for the establishment of a reformatory for women in California. The federal government has built a reformatory for women at Alderson, W. Va., with a capacity of 500.

The importance of prison schools for illiterates has long been emphasized by prison officers and by legislation, but recently there has been a recognition of the fact that schools for literates are quite as important as those for illiterates, especially in view of the great amount of idleness prevailing in many prisons. The state of California, for a number of years, has promoted correspondence courses at the San Quentin Prison in cooperation with the Extension Division of the University of California. About 1,300 prisoners, more than two-thirds of the prison population, were reported as taking one or more courses in 1929. They receive letters daily in their letter-boxes, study at night, and return the lessons by mail to

their instructors. The courses of study range from vocational work in cobbling, furniture-making, and machine shop practice to elementary, high school, and college subjects. It is reported that the school system exercises a wholesome influence on prison morale. During 1929 courses in citizenship, proposed by the State Department of Education, were introduced in the New York state prisons. The American Library Association is actively promoting plans for the improvement of prison libraries and their more efficient use by the prison inmates.

The construction of prisons was suspended during the World War and for several years after, and thus far prison construction has failed in nearly every state to overtake the normal increase of the prison population. Generally throughout the country there is overcrowding in all classes of institutions above enumerated. Massachusetts, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Illinois, and other states have made strenuous efforts to provide adequate prison facilities, but thus far have not overtaken the need. Overcrowding is one of the most destructive evils connected with the prison system of the country because it leads to the confinement of two prisoners in a cell, with the most demoralizing results. The situation has been aggravated by the extravagance of construction since the war, as illustrated in the states of Illinois, Ohio, Pennsylvania, and New York. Efforts to develop simpler and less expensive housing and equipment of prisons are being made in Massachusetts, New Jersey, Maryland, Michigan, and the District of Columbia with a considerable degree of success.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. There has recently been a new awakening as to the importance of personnel and special training in this field of social work. The Keepers' Training School, established experimentally by the commissioner of correction in New York City about three years ago, has caused a manifest improvement in the quality of service in the prisons of New York. Sanford Bates, superintendent of United States prisons, took steps soon after his appointment to establish a training school for guards and other prison officers. The school was opened early in January, 1930, and will be under the general supervision of A. H. MacCormick, assistant superintendent of prisons and attached to the Detention Headquarters, a federal detention prison recently established in New York City. The school will be in charge of J. O. Stutsman, superintendent of the Detention Headquarters, an experienced educator and prison warden. Twenty-eight selected men who have passed the civil service examination have been assigned to form the first class. Most of the instruction will be given by Superintendent Stutsman, but competent experts will be called in as voluntary lecturers. The course of instruction is designed to give the men practical training in order to promote greater efficiency in the work of federal prisons. The establishment of similar schools is already proposed in New York and Wisconsin, and is being discussed in a number of other states.

Developments and Events, 1929. A series of terrible outbreaks occurred during 1929 in the federal prison at Leavenworth, the Colorado State Prison at Canon City, the New York State Prison at Dannemora, and two different uprisings in the New York State Prison at Auburn. These outbreaks were the climax of a gradual accumulation of causes through a series of years. In all four of the prisons named there had been increasing conditions of bad housing, excessive overcrowding, lack of sufficient employment, poor feeding, and, in some cases, radically defective discipline. These circumstances undoubtedly contributed to the final catastrophes, but similar conditions have existed in other prisons which have been free from such disturbances. In the New York prisons the immediate cause seems to have been the gradual elimination of hope among

the prisoners, due to the restriction of allowances for good conduct and good work, the abridgment of the parole privilege, the very great increase in the length of sentences imposed by judges, the adoption of a law compelling judges to impose a life sentence upon prisoners convicted more than three times in succession, and the diminution of the practice of pardons and commutations. These conditions, superimposed upon those above named, incited desperate men to desperate measures.

In the record of the year's progress in this field, legislative and administrative changes are so closely related that both are described together in this section. Aside from the outbreaks already referred to, the most significant event during the year in the federal service was the appointment of Sanford Bates, for 10 years commissioner of correction of Massachusetts, as United States superintendent of prisons. Staff members of the Bureau of Prisons were increased from 21 to more than 50; A. H. MacCormick, previously on the faculty at Bowdoin College, was appointed assistant superintendent; and others of experience in prison work were appointed to positions in the reorganized Bureau. It was announced in August that President Hoover had decided upon a $5,000,000 program, comprising enlargement of four federal penal institutions and the erection of a new prison in one of the northeastern states. Plans were in preparation for the erection of a new industrial reformatory at Chillicothe, Ohio, and for a combined workhouse and jail in the vicinity of Cleveland or Detroit. It is expected that Congress will make the necessary appropriations for these institutions early in 1930. The only addition actually made during the year to federal equipment was the new jail in New York City for male prisoners awaiting trial and those sentenced for short terms. This is called the United States Detention Headquarters. It has a capacity of about 200 prisoners.

Among the developments of the year in the different states, those affecting the administration of penal institutions may be mentioned first: California created a State Department of Penology with a director at $3,600 a year, and with divisions relating to identification and investigation, pardons and commutations, narcotic enforcement, and criminology, the state correctional institutions, however, remaining under the State Department of Institutions; Louisiana provided for modern reformatory treatment, with expert examination preceding parole for women prisoners and also for psychiatric examination of all incoming prisoners in county jails; psychiatric service was being organized in the state institutions of New Jersey; in Pennsylvania a psychologist was appointed for the Eastern Penitentiary; in Cincinnati the Good Time Club organized psychiatric service and instituted lectures on health, civics, and general subjects, also sewing classes for women and classes in common school subjects at the local workhouse; in Utah three teachers from the city schools inaugurated classes at the state prison; the Massachusetts legislature provided substantial increases in salaries and maintenance allowances of wardens, and the minimum salary for prison keepers in the New York City Department of Correction was increased from $1,560 to $1,769 a year.

Extensive building programs were in progress or were authorized by legislatures during the year. Naturally those planned for New York State were the largest. The Department of Correction has prepared preliminary estimates for 13 different projects to be carried out during the coming five years, at a cost of approximately $39,000,000. Included are plans for the completion of the new state prison already begun at Attica, near Buffalo, a second new prison in the southeastern part of the state, and a new institution for defective delinquents. The legislature appropriated $3,500,000 for the Attica State Prison. New York City has in contemplation four prison projects to be completed within five years at a total cost of $13,800,000, of which $6,032,000 has been appropriated. The House of the Good

Shepherd in New York City was closed and a new one built at Peekskill.

A new criminal court building and a new county jail with 1,300 cells were opened in Chicago in April. A new state penitentiary was authorized for erection near Baltimore, with an appropriation of $730,000. The Missouri legislature authorized an intermediate reformatory for young men, for which $750,000 was appropriated. The California legislature appropriated $375,000 toward the erection of a new state prison in the southern part of the state (really an adult reformatory) for persons from 18 to 24 years, and established an institution for the confinement, care, and reformation of women prisoners above the age of 18 years. An appropriation of $234,000 was made in Pennsylvania for the establishment of an institution for male defective delinquents, and an act was passed to establish 10 district institutions to be known as industrial farms and workhouses. Berks and Delaware counties are beginning the construction of county institutions for short-term convicted offenders, such as were formerly committed to county jails. These are designed to employ prisoners both in agricultural and industrial work. Ohio began the enlargement of the farm colony reformatory and further development of its prison farm. The Women's Division of the Detroit House of Correction, a separate institution on the cottage plan opened just before the year began; is the most elaborate and expensive institution for delinquent women, in proportion to its population, in the world. New Jersey opened a prison farm as an adjunct to its state prison.

Important surveys or studies were in progress during the year in this field. A comprehensive investigation of probation, parole, prison administration, and juvenile delinquency was inaugurated by the Columbia Law School. The Missouri legislature established a State Survey Commission to study the state's institutions and departments and to report in 1930. A series of special studies were made (some under the auspices of the Missouri Welfare League) under the direction of specialists in the field, and most of the reports were completed. The Ohio State Department of Public Welfare began a special study of women's quarters in jails and the employment of women prisoners; and the Managing Officers Association of Ohio State Institutions inaugurated a study of needs for additional prison accommodations, the practicability of the new system of parole, and the classification of prisoners. The Association also organized a Council of Mental Hygiene to study a plan for fixing standards for the transfer of institution inmates, including transfers from penal institutions to those in the mental hygiene group. In Colorado a committee working under the auspices of the Denver Community Chest undertook a survey of jails and correctional institutions of the state. A survey of prison buildings in the state was made by the Pennsylvania Prison Society, and in Virginia surveys of criminal justice in general and of police court justice in particular were undertaken by the State Board of Public Welfare. The Pennsylvania Department of Public Welfare reported a study of rules recommended for the management of county prisons. In Texas a special prison commission visited and studied prisons of various states, with a view to the complete reorganization of the Texas prison system, and will report to the legislature of 1930. A private citizen of Houston made a study of 200 men in the State Penitentiary in an effort to learn what led to their conviction.

CONSULT: American Prison Association: *Proceedings*, 1870–1929; Brockway, Z. R.: *Fifty Years of Prison Service*, 1912; Hart, Hastings H.: *Penology an Educational Problem* (includes a bibliography), 1923; Lawes, Lewis E.: *Life and Death in Sing Sing*, 1928; National Society of Penal Information: *Handbooks of American Prisons*, 1925, 1926, and 1929; Robinson, L. N.: *Penology in the United States*, 1921; Seventieth Congress of the United States, first session: *Hearings before the Special House Committee on Federal Penal and Reformatory Institutions Pursuant to*

H. Res. 233, 1929; Wines, F. H.: *Punishment and Reformation* (revised and enlarged by W. D. Lane), 1919.

HASTINGS H. HART

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 593.

PENITENTIARIES. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

PENSIONS FOR MOTHERS OR WIDOWS. *See* MOTHERS' AID.

PENSIONS, OLD AGE. *See* OLD AGE PENSIONS.

PENSIONS TO SOLDIERS. *See* VETERANS.

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN INDUSTRY. Personnel administration, as the term is commonly used in industry, is a synonym for labor management and includes three classes of functions: (a) Employment management, which is concerned with the movement of labor into a plant, through the various departments, and out of the plant, *i. e.*, hiring, selecting, transfer, promotion, discharge, and so forth; (b) service management or welfare work, which has to do with the conditions surrounding employes at their work, such as safety, sanitation, lunchrooms, recreational facilities, education, insurance, pensions, and so forth; (c) joint management or collective bargaining, which is concerned with employe representation, trade unionism, and methods of giving employes a voice in fixing terms and conditions of employment and democratically administering them.

This classification makes it clear that personnel administration implies something more than mere rule-of-thumb labor management. It implies scientific management of labor, and the assumption of social responsibility by the management for the welfare of the workers. In other words, personnel administration is labor management enlightened by a scientific spirit and a social conscience. Labor management of this kind is genuinely social work, even though carried on within industry by the management itself instead of being left to outside community agencies.

Much that is now called personnel administration was formerly known as welfare work. But just as the term charity has given way to social service, so within industry—as the conception of the responsibility of employers toward workers has broadened—the term welfare work has given way to service management or employe services. Personnel administration, the subject of this article, covers other phases of labor management besides these services, but, owing to limitations of space such technical problems as hiring, recruiting, testing, and selection of employes are omitted.

The germs of modern, scientific labor management—which was to supplant "bossing" and give rise to the present conception of personnel administration—may be noted in the welfare work of Robert Owen and a few other pioneering manufacturers in the nineteenth century. But it was not until the end of the century that this work spread to any considerable extent through industry. Then, partly for philanthropic reasons and partly to avoid dealing with unions, many employers began voluntarily to improve working conditions in their plants, to reduce hours of labor, and to provide services for their employes beyond the demands ordinarily made by trade unions or the standards set by labor laws. Factory safety legislation and workmen's compensation laws stimulated the development of one phase of this personnel work, namely, safety and sanitation; and the movement for industrial education and vocational guidance resulted in the establishment of corporation schools and training courses within the plant.

Then came the influence of what became known as "scientific management," under the leadership of Taylor, Gantt, Gilbreth, and Emerson. Shortly after them came a

group of men led by Walter Dill Scott, who applied modern psychological methods, mental tests, and measurements to the management of labor. At about the same time social workers and physicians began to study industrial fatigue and occupational diseases, and physical examinations and medical departments began to appear in industrial establishments. The discovery of the problem of labor turnover—the hiring of many hundreds of workers for every hundred actually needed—and the attempts to reduce this by more scientific and humane treatment of employes were other influences in the direction of scientific personnel management. And finally the prestige and power attained by trade unions during the war led to the post-war development of employe representation in industry as a means of giving employes a voice in fixing terms and conditions of work and winning them away from the organized labor movement.

All these movements led to a much broader and sounder understanding of the problems of labor management by employers, and this broadened approach developed rapidly during the boom period following the armistice. Centralized control of labor administration in a personnel division or an industrial relations department under a personnel director or industrial relations manager became the rule in most of the larger plants. It is now considered an essential of good management to have one executive charged with general responsibility for administering the labor policies of the employer and for looking after the welfare of the employes, just as other executives are responsible for finance, production, or sales.

Some idea of the growth of employes' services or welfare activities over a 10-year period may be gathered from two studies made by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, one in 1916, the other in 1926 (Bulletins 250, February, 1919, and 458, February, 1928). The studies covered 431 plants in the first year and 430 in the second.

Kinds of Service	*Per cent of Plants Having Service*	
	1916	*1926*
Hospitals or emergency rooms	71	93
Vacation with pay	4	31
Sick leave with pay	2	3
Indoor recreational facilities	35	55
Outdoor recreational facilities	52	74
Libraries	36	30
Lunch rooms	51	70
Loan funds	13	17
Thrift plans	44	46
Benefit association	19	50
Group insurance	7	43

The plants selected for these studies—mainly large plants—were noted for their personnel activities. Therefore the percentages do not give a picture of the extent to which such services are provided by industry as a whole. They are valuable only in showing the growth in the provisions made for the welfare of employes. The extent to which modern personnel administration actually prevails in industry as a whole may be better measured by the number of centralized personnel departments that employers have established to manage all their labor relations. Thus, the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics found in 1916 that only 141 plants, about one-third of the 431 studied, employed a welfare secretary or employment manager or executive whose sole duties were administration of personnel work (Bulletin 250, p. 123), while in 1926 there were 261 plants out of 430 studied (60 per cent) which had centralized departments whose special function was personnel administration (Bulletin 458, p. 85).

According to an investigation in 1929 made by the National Industrial Conference Board, 34 per cent of 1,676 plants, each employing more than 250 employes, maintained separate departments for administering personnel work, but such departments were rare in smaller establishments (*Industrial Relations Programs in Small Plants*, p. 20). A recent study in Ohio made by the Bureau of Business Research of Ohio State University showed that out of 189 industrial plants 65 (34 per cent) had specialized personnel departments. This study covered both large and small plants, and its results

are so close to the nation-wide study made by the National Industrial Conference Board that it is safe to conclude that about one-third of the industrial establishments of the country now have centralized departments with a specialized staff for the administration of personnel activities. The Ohio study further found that almost 64 per cent of the plants having between 200 and 400 employes had such departments, and 73 per cent of those employing between 400 and 800; whereas the rate was 92 per cent for plants having 800 to 1,500 workers; and every establishment with 1,500 or more employes had specialized personnel administration in a separate department. This is probably representative of the country as a whole, although the report of President Hoover's Committee on Recent Economic Changes notes that the results of their survey "show greater activity in the Middle West than in the Northeastern section" (*Recent Economic Changes*, vol. 2, p. 518). In general it may be said that almost all establishments employing more than 500 people now have specialized personnel departments. Plants of this size employ about 40 per cent of all wage-earners.

The specific activities of personnel departments vary greatly in different establishments, and many plants carry on such activities which have no personnel departments. Aside from health, safety, and recreational services, the greatest development has been in provisions made for security of employes and the representation of workers in dealing with the management. The following is a summary of insurance plans found by the National Industrial Conference Board in 1929:

Provisions for Security of Employes, 1929	*Over 250 Employes*	*Under 250 Employes*
Mutual benefit associations	29.7	4.5
Death benefits	28.7	2.8
Sickness and accident Insurance	32.6	3.2
Group life	46.9	36.3
Group health and accident	15.5	11.0
Unemployment	0.8	0.3
Pensions		
Individual basis	26.4	4.6
Group basis	1.9	0.2

The study covered 4,409 plants throughout the country, employing more than 419,000 workers (*Industrial Relations Programs in Small Plants*, p. 16).

Employes' mutual benefit associations are usually jointly maintained by the workers and the management, the former paying monthly dues, the latter making contributions of varying amounts. Group life insurance has been the most popular development of personnel administration in recent years both in small and large establishments. In the former it is most often on a contributory basis, while the larger plants usually bear the entire expense. The latter, however, commonly provide less insurance than the contributory plans. Industrial pensions were paid to 1.2 per cent of 2,800,000 workers employed by 215 companies in 1924, the average payment being about $500 annually, and the total over $18,000,000.

Perhaps the most significant contribution of personnel administration has been its development of employe representation for joint control of industrial relations. The growth of this movement may be seen in the following table given by Paul Gemmill, in *Present Day Labor Relations* (p. 93):

Year	*Companies Having Employe Representation*	*Separate Works Councils*	*Workers Under Employe Representation*
1919	145	196	403,000
1922	385	725	690,000
1924	421	814	1,240,000
1926	432	913	1,369,000

Since 1926 the movement has continued to grow, particularly in the larger establishments, and it was estimated in 1929 that there were something like a thousand industrial establishments, employing about a million and a half wage-earners, which had works councils, shop committees, industrial assemblies, or other cooperative plans for giving employes some degree of self-determination and self-government on their jobs. These company unions have been organized avowedly for the purpose of providing democratic control over labor relations and

giving workers a voice in determining their wages and conditions. Personnel managers urge the adoption of employe representation as a necessary step toward industrial democracy. While trade unions oppose the movement as an attempt to destroy organized labor, and there is ground for their fear in this respect, nevertheless it is extremely significant that the term "industrial democracy," so long familiar in the propaganda of social reformers and trade unionists, has now been made a slogan of business and industrial leaders by the development of modern personnel administration.

Studies in progress in this field during 1929 include investigations by Industrial Relations Counsellors, Inc., of pension plans and other phases of personnel administration.

CONSULT: Tead and Metcalf: *Personnel Administration* (revised edition), 1926; Hackett, J. D.: *Labor Management*, 1929; Gemmill, Paul F.: *Present Day Labor Relations*, 1929; Industrial Relations Counsellors, Inc.: *Unemployment Compensation Plans in the United States* (3 volumes), 1928, and *Semi-Annual Library Review;* Rossi, William and Diana: *Personnel Administration* (a bibliography), 1925; Princeton University, Industrial Relations Section: *Library Subject Index* (undated) and bulletins; also pamphlets of the American Management Association and issues of the *American Management Review;* the *Personnel Journal* (Personnel Research Federation); *Public Personnel Studies* (Bureau of Public Personnel Administration); and bulletins of the Department of Manufacture, United States Chamber of Commerce and of the National Association of Manufacturers.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 593.

PHYSICAL EXAMINATION OF SCHOOL CHILDREN. *See* SCHOOL HYGIENE.

PIONEER YOUTH. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

PLACEMENT BUREAUS. *See* EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES and VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

PLACEMENT OF THE HANDICAPPED. Practically no specialized placement service for the handicapped existed before the World War except for the hard of hearing. When those interested in the vocational readjustment of disabled veterans began to study employment possibilities for men with different disabilities, they discovered the need for detailed knowledge of the jobs in industry, the limitations imposed by various disabilities, and the need for opportunities for special training and placement. The first study of this type began in 1917 in the Red Cross Institute in New York. In 1917 the government assumed responsibility for the vocational rehabilitation of ex-service men, first through the Veterans' Bureau and later through the Federal Board of Vocational Education. The work with war veterans, however, revealed and emphasized the very great handicaps that face disabled civilians when they try to find a place in industry. In 1918 Massachusetts organized the first state bureau of rehabilitation for the training and placement of the handicapped civilian. Forty-four states now have such bureaus. The labor shortage during and after the war helped to stimulate the movement.

At first such bureaus gave their attention primarily to training. But as labor shortage has diminished, and the use of physical examinations in the selection of employes has increased, the handicapped have found greater difficulty in securing employment, and placement service has become more necessary. The general employment agency —whether a state public employment office or a non-profit-making or commercial agency —cannot give the time necessary to study the needs of the handicapped or to secure positions for them, because this must be done largely on a case work basis. *See* EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES. The result has been the setting up of special free placement

services in several cities. These placement bureaus deal primarily with the handicapped who are able to function in some capacity in regular industry. Those too handicapped to take regular positions are referred to agencies which provide sheltered employment or homework. *See* SHELTERED WORKSHOPS. The bureaus generally accept the crippled—"those whose muscular movements are restricted by disease, accident or congenital deformity"—cardiac cases, those with arrested tuberculosis, deaf mutes, and persons suffering from hernias, varicose veins, and the like. A few accept persons with mental or neurological disorders. In some instances old age is included as a handicap.

The Red Cross Institute for the Crippled and Disabled opened its placement service in New York City in 1916. At the present time there are approximately 16 bureaus in 12 cities. In addition there are placement services for special groups, such as those offered by leagues for the hard of hearing and agencies for the blind. Some service is also given by such social agencies as the Goodwill Industries and the Salvation Army, but they rarely employ placement agents specially assigned to the handicapped.

Cities where placement agencies are now in operation include: Boston, where the Social Service Department of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union maintains a clearing house for handicapped women, and where also placement work for discharged sanatorium patients has been developed by the local anti-tuberculosis association; Chicago, where special placement service for the handicapped is operated by the Illinois Free Employment Office, and where the Vocational Guidance Bureau in the Board of Education employs a special counsellor for work with the physically handicapped under 21 years of age; and Cincinnati, Detroit, Minneapolis, New York City, Brooklyn, Pittsburgh, Providence, and St. Louis, where placement bureaus supported by private funds and general in scope are maintained. In addition, Hartford and New York City have special bureaus for the placement of the mentally subnormal, and in Philadelphia the Health Council and the Health Association jointly maintain a placement service primarily for cardiac cases and the tuberculous.

The number of placement secretaries in these offices varies from one to seven. Some bureaus also employ psychologists and medical service. Placement secretaries are drawn from the fields of family welfare work, psychiatric social work, personnel work, and general placement work. At present no special training courses are provided in schools of social work or elsewhere for those interested in entering the field. The work requires a thorough knowledge of industry and job requirements, of case work methods, and a certain sales ability.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year has not seen any very significant changes. The tendency has been to include under the term "handicapped" not only orthopedic cases, but also cardiac cases, deaf mutes, and tuberculous, mental, and neurological cases. The growing interest in the work was indicated during the year by the inclusion of the subject for discussion at the meetings of the National Vocational Guidance Association and the International Association of Public Employment Services. Studies in progress during the year include the following: a survey in Boston of placement agencies for the handicapped; a study in Minneapolis of employment for the handicapped; one in New York of the employment problems of parole cases of state hospitals; and one of the placement of the crippled child, by the Sub-committee on Crippled Children of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection.

CONSULT: Consumers' League of Cincinnati: *Employment Agencies in Cincinnati*, 1928; Lightfoot, Jessie M.: "Follow-up Investigation of Five Hundred Children Who Previously Attended Classes for the Physically Handicapped," in the *Psychological Clinic*, March–April, 1929; "An Experiment in Placing the Handicapped in In-

dustry," in *Information Service* (Federal Council of Churches), October, 1929; Crafts, Mabel E.: "Placement of Cardiacs and the Tuberculous," in *Rehabilitation Review*, June, 1929.

LOUISE C. ODENCRANTZ

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 593.

PLACING-OUT. *See* DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

PLAY FESTIVALS. The festival spirit, so widespread in European villages, is making its way into the community life of this country and is already established as an institution in many localities. The annual Mardi Gras in New Orleans and the rose festivals held every year in Portland, Ore., and Pasadena attract visitors to those cities from all over the country and are the most outstanding examples. But it is the little-noted children's festival, appearing on many municipal playgrounds as a natural and joyous expression of youth, that is of greatest interest to organized social work. For those who view it, the playground festival is a demonstration of the children's varied play activities, but for the children it is much more than that. It is a celebration which records their emancipation from the aimless play life of the city or village streets into the stimulating activities which modern recreational programs make possible. In some localities boys and girls from the different neighborhoods march in gala attire to the playground, carrying decorated umbrellas and banners or turning their procession into a parade of dolls and pets. Festivals vary from those in which Old King Cole, the Pied Piper, Pandora, or other neighborhood characters appear, uniting the many playground activities by means of a familiar tale, to those of a more formal type, such as the May Day celebration in Central Park, New York, where the traditional May-pole dance is given.

In the last half decade the festival has not only become more popular but has assumed a definite character. The children look forward to the day and enter into the fête in a genuine holiday mood. Everyone takes part in some way. Folk dancing usually predominates, but so elastic is the form that a circus may be introduced as a means of exhibiting athletic skill, or a kermess as the vehicle for the assembled activities of playground life. One playground uses Peter Pan as a theme on which to string a series of folk dances; another, the Old Woman Who Lived in a Shoe, a tale which lends itself easily to the exhibition of games and sports, as well as handicraft. The formal festivals, especially prepared for playground use, contain episodes interpreting all activities in the light of their æsthetic values.

The festival is especially valuable, and yet quite inexpensive, as a means by which a large number of people may be used in an entertainment for the purpose of making the work of playgrounds understood. It is also a folk movement in which people, *en masse*, express their recognition and appreciation of some particularly delightful aspect of living.

CONSULT: Mackay, Constance: "Festival Producing in Parks and Playgrounds," in the *Playground Magazine*, September, 1921.

MABEL FOOTE HOBBS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

PLAYGROUNDS. *See* PARKS, PLAYGROUNDS, AND RECREATION CENTERS.

PLAYS. *See* AMATEUR DRAMATICS and THE THEATRE.

POLICEWOMEN. In order to deal with the problems of women and children and with community conditions which foster delinquency, police departments need to be equipped with a corps of well-educated women, trained in social work, to act as policewomen. The experiment of employing women on city police staffs was first tried by Portland, Ore., in 1905, when police

power was given to a group of women as a means of meeting problems arising out of the Lewis and Clark Exposition. In 1910 Los Angeles appointed the first woman to hold the title of "policewoman," and other cities soon followed, until at the beginning of the war policewomen were employed in some 30 communities. Then came a period of great stimulus, indirect at times, but effective universally and permanently. The country desired not merely to place a force in the field that was thoroughly fit, but also to guard the men in service from social dangers. The soldier problem was soon perceived to be closely connected with the "girl problem"; and through the Section on Women and Girls of the Commission on Training Camp Activities women trained in protective work with girls were quickly placed at all concentration points. These women, seeing the need for permanent protective work, recognized the strategic position which the police department offered on the first line of social defense. Throughout the war period they agitated for the appointment of trained policewomen; and many have since continued to be active in the movement, being responsible in large measure for its growth, not only in cities, but in rural districts as well. In 1915 the International Association of Policewomen was formed to promote the extension of the movement and the improvement of standards of personnel and administration.

Present Status. At present there are about 800 policewomen employed in about 250 communities, chiefly urban. In some of the larger cities a woman's bureau has been established under the direction of a woman of ability and experience, holding police rank, and directly responsible to the chief of police. Usually the house of detention and the police matrons come under the jurisdiction of such a bureau. The policewomen are divided into several groups, one patrolling public gathering places, and another investigating cases, making adjustments, and referring individuals to social agencies or to the courts. A few cities have divided their policewomen among the precincts or have attached them to the detective bureau, but almost without exception this plan is not effective.

The cases with which policewomen deal cover the whole field of social maladjustment—missing persons, shoplifters, disrupted domestic relations, rape, neglect, delinquency, and waywardness. In well-conducted bureaus these cases are investigated according to case work methods, and where adjustments require facilities beyond the capacity of the policewomen the cases are referred to other social agencies. In small communities which lack these outside private resources policewomen must carry on long-time case supervision. Patrol duties include inspection of public dance halls and motion picture houses, railroad stations and parks, where conditions which contribute to delinquency are corrected if possible, facilities for more wholesome recreation are introduced, and individual cases dealt with before they reach an acute stage. The necessity for a social rather than a police approach to the problem has been clearly recognized; and except where there has been technical ignorance on the part of those promoting appointments or political nepotism of unusual strength, the tendency is definitely toward the employment of trained social workers and the use of case work methods.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Three agencies, the International Association of Policewomen, the United States Civil Service Commission, and the International Association of Chiefs of Police, have agreed upon a minimum standard for employment in this field. This is, approximately, a high school education plus two years of experience in social work, preferably social case work with delinquents, but in many places the average requirements are much higher. There is no training school particularly for policewomen, but several of the schools of social work and universities

have provided special courses or extension lectures. Among these are Simmons College School of Social Work, Boston; New York School of Social Work, University of California Graduate Curriculum in Social Service, and George Washington University, Washington. A thorough training in methods of meeting delinquency problems offers the best foundation, while experience in patrol and police technique may be obtained through apprenticeship in one of the well-organized policewomen's bureaus. A few city governments now include policewomen in their police training schools.

Developments and Events, 1929. During 1929 the service was established for the first time in Cincinnati and Kansas City. The most extensive development of the year took place in New York City, where a study by a special committee resulted in the organization of a Crime Prevention Bureau in the Police Department, including a separate woman's division. During the year also a manual on the work of women police was in preparation by Eleanore Hutzel for the Bureau of Social Hygiene. This will give detailed information as to organization and procedure.

CONSULT: Owings, Chloe: *Women Police*, 1925; Fosdick, Raymond B.: *American Police Systems*, 1920; Pigeon, Helen D.: "Policewomen in the United States," in *Journal of Criminal Law and Criminology*, November, 1927; Bureau of Public Personnel Administration: special issue on Policewomen, *Public Personnel Studies*, December, 1927; International Association of Policewomen: Issues of the *Bulletin*. (For a bibliography, *see Bulletin* of March, 1929.)

HELEN D. PIGEON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 593.

POLIOMYELITIS. *See* CRIPPLED CHILDREN.

POORHOUSES. *See* COUNTY AND CITY HOMES.

POOR RELIEF AGENCIES. *See* PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES.

PRENATAL CARE AND EDUCATION. *See* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE.

PRESCHOOL CHILDREN. *See* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE, NURSERY SCHOOLS, CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH, KINDERGARTENS, and PARENT EDUCATION.

PRISON LABOR has been fraught with scandal and investigation in state after state during the last hundred years. The year 1929 proved to be a turning point, however, and the next few years will see a majority of the states, if not all of them, adopt practical plans for the employment of their prisoners, based on the principle that the prisoner should work in order to return to the state the cost of his keep and to earn for himself some few of the necessities of life.

The most recent pronouncement of this principle was by a resolution which was adopted at each of a series of zone conferences on the allocation of prison industries, held during 1924, 1925, and 1926 and attended by official representatives of 21 states. That resolution stated that "all able-bodied, physically fit, mentally competent prisoners should be employed and not maintained in idleness." The usual forms of employment are in the upkeep or maintenance of prisons, in public works—including road building, reforestation, construction work, and reclamation of land—on prison farms, or in productive industries within penal institutions. Ninety thousand is a conservative estimate of the number of prisoners in the United States. That figure is based on statistics of the Census Bureau for January 1, 1927 (*Prisoners in State and Federal Prisons and Reformatories*), with allowance for increase and deduction for incapacity, and does not include prisoners in local jails. Most of such prisoners are now idle and cannot be adequately employed until the entire county jail system is reorganized.

History and Present Status. Prior to the industrial revolution in the United States, between 1830 and 1840, prisoners were employed in handicrafts and were paid a small wage through the public sale of their products. As the states were unwilling to make the investment necessary for the purchase of machinery, the way was opened for the prison contractor, a private business man who provided machinery and supervision and paid the state a small sum per day for the prisoners' labor. The contractors proved that prisoners can produce marketable commodities. But industry operated by free workers suffered to such an extent from the competition that as early as 1830 riots occurred in Albany, N. Y. The system, however, remained unchanged in any state until 1894, when a clause was placed in the New York State constitution prohibiting the sale of prison products in public markets, and in 1896 it was enacted that prison products should be marketed in the institutions and departments of the state and its political subdivisions.

The obstacles which handicapped this system, since known as the "state-use" system, were two—political manipulation, and the fact that the states were purchasing their supplies on a hit-or-miss basis, which made it impossible for prisons to secure quantity orders in any one line. A means had to be developed to make state-use practical, and in 1912 the National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor (organized in 1909) presented the following plan: standardization of commodities used in state institutions and departments; central purchase of supplies required by state governments; production in prison workshops of standard commodities to meet these requirements; and the exchange with other states of surplus prison products, above those which the producing state can consume. This plan is becoming effective. The years since 1912 have revolutionized government methods of purchasing supplies to such an extent that by 1929 there were 43 states and 30 cities which operated through central purchasing bureaus in buying the six to seven hundred million dollars worth of commodities they used each year. A directory of commodity specifications was issued by the United States Department of Commerce in 1925, and the Associates for Government Service, Inc. (*see* its listing in Part II), aided and encouraged by the Bureau of Standards in the United States Department of Commerce, is helping state production departments to develop specifications and standards for commodities which will meet the needs of the purchasing institutions. Furthermore, state penal farms are each year increasing their production of foodstuffs for the use of the inmates of prisons and other state institutions. Road work, reforestation, reclamation, and construction work are affording employment to many prisoners, and ultimately only hardened offenders who cannot be trusted, or prisoners receiving special industrial training, will be assigned to productive industries within prison walls.

The end of the year 1929, according to the United States Department of Commerce, saw the following alignment of prison labor: "The federal government and 11 states manufacture prison goods or supply prison labor for governmental use only (this does not include local sale of farm products); 13 states sell their convict-made goods to brokers, wholesalers, retailers, and consumers in addition to manufacturing for governmental use; 24 states sell prison-made goods to private distributors or labor to contractors who seek private profit in reselling these products to wholesale and retail dealers." (*Prison Industries*, 1929, pp. 19–20.)

The principle of paying wages to prisoners is now recognized in the legislation of 41 states. The provisions, however, vary. Some states provide that a wage shall be paid for overtime above a given stint; others that it shall depend on good conduct, or be paid according to the will of the board controlling the institutions; others disassociate the payment entirely from wages and give it in the form of a dole to the prisoner's family, although the latter practice

is being superseded by mothers' pensions. *See* MOTHERS' AID.

Legislation providing for a wage based on the value of the labor performed is found in California (for prisoners employed on road work), Iowa, Massachusetts, New Jersey, New York, and Pennsylvania. Such laws tend toward the development of the provision contained in the following executive order issued by President Wilson in 1918: "Compensation and hours of labor for inmates of any institution above specified, working upon such supplies, shall be based upon the standard hours and wages prevailing in the vicinity in which the institution is located. The pro rata cost of maintaining the inmates so employed shall be deducted from their compensation." This principle has not been applied in practice because the wage based upon production has nowhere in any way approached the wage paid in outside industry.

Legislation, 1929. The year was an epoch-making one in prison-labor history, because it marked the passage of a bill, which in successive forms, Congress had been considering for 30 years to divest prison-made goods of their interstate character, and, therefore, make them subject to the laws of the states which they enter for sale. The new law (Public Law 699, Seventieth Congress, 45 Statutes at large, p. 1084) is simply an enabling act which will permit states to enforce laws regulating the sale of prison-made products on their public markets. Prior to the passage of this act such laws have been held unconstitutional because of their conflict with the Interstate Commerce Law. The passage of the law by an overwhelming majority in both houses strikes a death blow to the old system under which prisoners were exploited for the benefit of private business interests. When the law takes effect in 1934 it will be possible for states to enforce labeling laws which require that the source of manufacture be plainly marked on goods offered for sale on their markets. This labeling will not handicap the sale of prison-made goods for government use, but will force the abolition of the corrupt marketing practices which have characterized the public-market sale. State legislation enacted during the year was of minor importance. State programs, however, must be developed during 1930 to meet the conditions which will arise as a result of the passage of the Federal Law. This, it is expected, will result in much constructive legislation in 1931.

Other Developments and Events, 1929. The most important conferences during the year were those called by the Associates for Government Service, to work out standards for goods in a number of different lines to be manufactured in prisons for government use. It is proposed to extend these conferences to cover all lines of prison goods in order that they may meet the needs of the consuming institutions. Because of the marked advances made in the federal prison system during his administration, ex-President Coolidge was awarded a medal during the year, by the National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor, for distinguished service in the field of prison reorganization.

CONSULT: United States Department of Commerce: *Prison Industries*—in Domestic Commerce Series, No. 27 (includes a bibliography), 1929; Seventieth Congress, First Session: *Convict Labor* (Hearings before the Committee on Interstate Commerce, United States Senate, on Senate Bill 1,940), 1928, and *Prison-Made Merchandise* (Hearings before the Committee on Labor, House of Representatives, on House Resolution 7,729), 1928; National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor: *Annual Reports*, 1928 and 1929, and *Industries for Correctional Institutions for Women*, 1927; and Whitin, E. Stagg: "A Plan for the Interstate Sale of Prison Products," and Weyand, L. D.: "Wage Systems in Prisons," in the *Annals of the American Academy*, May, 1926.

E. STAGG WHITIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 593.

PRISONERS' AID. With few exceptions the agencies in this field have a twofold pur-

pose: to obtain better conditions for prisoners while still confined, and to minister to their needs after release. Relief is given pending self-support. Employment is found, if possible, and services are rendered for the sake of rehabilitation. Such agencies are maintained by voluntary gifts, in some instances through community chests and income from endowments. Only one agency is known to the writer which has received a public subsidy, and no instance is known of a tax-supported agency operating in this field.

Closely related to the work of prisoners' aid societies, however, are several activities under public auspices. In 27 states mothers' aid is given to the wives of prisoners if any children are in the family; in some states a share of the prisoner's earnings is sent to his family; in all states prisoners' families are eligible to public relief through the usual channels; and many prisoners themselves, on release, are placed under the care of parole officers. These latter public officials have functions which identify them closely with the prisoners' aid movement, but they have no relief funds to dispense. *See* Mothers' Aid, Prison Labor, Public Agencies for Needy Families, and Parole for Adults. In most states, moreover, a prisoner is given from $5.00 to $10 on his release. In some states nothing is given, and in only one state is as much as $25 given.

History and Present Status. The prisoners' aid movement in America owes its origin and inspiration primarily to the pioneer Quakers. The earlier agencies in this field were the Pennsylvania Prison Society of Philadelphia, organized in 1787; the Prison Association of New York, organized in 1844; and the Massachusetts Society for Aiding Discharged Prisoners, organized in Boston in 1846. The Salvation Army organized its prisoners' aid department in 1885, and the Volunteer Prison League of the Volunteers of America was established in 1896. These organizations, with other state agencies in Massachusetts, Connecticut, Colorado, Oregon, and Texas, the Society for the Friendless in Kansas City, and the Central Howard Association in Chicago constitute the leading agencies in the field today. Four of these agencies are under religious auspices. About one-half of them undertake to assist the families of all prisoners in their field of operations, while the others aid such individuals as apply.

Complete statistics are not available as to the number of applicants assisted annually. Nine of the above agencies report a total of 38,517 clients. Most of the reports were for the year 1928, and full reports for 1929 would probably bring the total to 50,000. It has been estimated that an average of one prisoner a day is released from the 125 state prisons, reformatories, and major city prisons of the country. It is evident, therefore, that many of the prisoners assisted have been discharged from smaller prisons and local jails.

For several years the relief and rehabilitation work of these agencies showed little progress. Recently, however, evidences of advance have appeared in the more scientific approach to the problem; in the closer relations established with the other social agencies, and in better cooperation with public administrators and legislators whose assistance is necessary for the adoption of progressive measures. Although technical training in social case work is not a primary condition for employment, prisoners' aid societies usually have some trained social workers on their staffs. There is evidence, moreover, of a tendency toward case work methods. The opportunities for trained social workers are limited, since a given volume of work in this field can be carried on by a smaller staff than is needed in fields where more complete family histories are more readily obtainable.

Developments and Events, 1929. An outstanding event of the year was the announcement by the trustees of the Lotta Crabtree Estate that the income from a fund of $100,000 is to be used for assistance to released prisoners in the cities of San Francisco, St. Louis, Chicago, New York, Washington,

Louisville, and New Orleans. Pro-rated annual payments will be made to designated agencies. By a law passed during the year in Wisconsin (Ch. 415), grants for the relief of prisoners' families are to be made at the discretion of the State Board of Control out of the operation appropriation of the state institutions in which the prisoners are confined. In Ohio (H.B. 120) the law applying to workhouses and providing for payments for the benefit of prisoners' children was extended to apply also to county jails.

CONSULT: Reports and periodicals of the national agencies in this field; also Lawes, Lewis E.: "The Life of an Ex-Convict," in the *World's Work*, October, 1928; "The Ex-Convict as a Samaritan," in the *Literary Digest*, March 17, 1928; and "Ten Dollars and Make Good," in the *Nation*, September, 1928. The last named articles are unsigned.

F. EMORY LYON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 593.

PRISONERS' FAMILIES, ALLOWANCES FOR. *See* MOTHERS' AID.

PRISONS. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

PROBATION FOR ADULTS. *See* ADULT PROBATION.

PROBATION FOR CHILDREN. *See* JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION.

PROBLEM CHILDREN. *See* PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN.

PROFESSIONAL ORGANIZATION OF SOCIAL WORK. *See* SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION.

PROFESSIONAL SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION may be defined in terms of a new attitude and a new technique. The attitude is reflected in a conception of the child as a whole personality; the technique proceeds from a discernment of latent powers, not from the imposition of predetermined criteria. It is a spirit now affecting all schools in this country and abroad and for this reason social workers, especially those who deal with children, are increasingly aware of its presence and its implications. Further, the results of procedures in the so-called "progressive schools" are already beginning to affect current conceptions of relationships between children and adults in the classroom and in the home, and may be expected to exert a still greater influence in the future. Case workers are rapidly accepting these new concepts and modifying their own procedures accordingly.

History and Present Status. The movement has derived special impetus through an organization known as the Progressive Education Association, founded in Washington, D. C., in 1918, by a group of educators and laity to ascertain evidences and to appraise and disseminate them. The outstanding spokesman of the movement in America is John Dewey, the present honorary president of the Association. The late Charles W. Eliot, president of Harvard University, was his predecessor. The movement in Europe, organized in the same year, is known as the New Education Fellowship and is fostered by such leaders as Decroly in Belgium, Elisabeth Rotten in Germany, Ferrière in Switzerland, Mme. Hauser in France, and Beatrice Ensor in England.

Through the American movement, progressive education has developed changes in school curricula to permit of freer individual activity; has spread knowledge of the preschool child, as evidenced in the nursery school and kindergarten; has affected the nature of school equipments so as to create better learning conditions; has influenced the revision of teacher-training courses; has aroused better concepts of the function of the college, and has stimulated

the adult education movement. *See* CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH, NURSERY SCHOOLS, KINDERGARTENS, and ADULT EDUCATION.

Complete figures are not available as to the number of "progressive schools" in the United States. The private schools of this type probably number 300. Beyond these are as many more which exhibit various phases of this type of work. All of them are endowed or supported by tuition fees. The total enrollment is about 50,000. Many public school systems, such as those in Winnetka, Ill., and Bronxville, N. Y., are wholly progressive, and very few public school systems are without an "experimental school," or a group of teachers who have the new education viewpoint.

The Progressive Education Association has grown from a handful to a present enrollment of 7,000; it holds annual conventions with an average attendance of 2,000; conducts a six weeks' summer institute under the auspices of a leading college, with an average attendance of 100. There are no local branches or chapters. Through its monthly magazine, *Progressive Education*, correspondence, publicity, school visiting, and public speaking the association endeavors to supply information, diagnose school needs, provide literature and speakers, fill teaching vacancies, and furnish communities with the data necessary to improve their educational conditions or establish new schools.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year 1929 marked the largest period of growth in the history of the movement. Regional conferences were developed at Richmond and San Diego, and a summer institute was inaugurated at Pennsylvania State College. The convention in 1930 will be held in Washington, the summer institute at Vassar College, and the regional conferences in Pasadena and Nashville. The one outstanding future project is the appointment of a field secretary who, first hand, will engage in work of a research nature, confer with heads of schools and boards of education, accept speaking engagements, and, in the main, promote the growth of progressive education.

CONSULT: Rugg and Shumaker: *The Child Centered School—An Appraisal of the New Education*, 1929; Naumburg, Margaret: *The Child and the World*, 1928; Washburne and Stearns: *Better Schools*, 1928; Cobb, Stanwood: *The New Leaven*, 1928; Dewey, John: *Democracy and Education*, 1916; Whitehead, Alfred N.: *The Aims of Education and Other Essays*, 1929; Johnson, Marietta: *Youth in a World of Men*, 1929; and Mearns, Hughes: *Creative Power*, 1929.

J. MILNOR DOREY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PROTECTIVE WORK FOR CHILDREN. *See* CHILD PROTECTION.

PROTECTIVE WORK FOR GIRLS OR WOMEN. *See* GIRLS' PROTECTIVE WORK.

PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK. Charities and education both had their origin in religious institutions, and the connection is still close between religion and charity, the latter known increasingly today as social work. Within the last 50 years, however, significant changes, only slowly recognized, have taken place in the functions of religious agencies in the social work field. The trends are frequently hard to discern, but it seems evident that Protestantism is increasingly accepting the conclusion that the community rather than the church should handle most of the tasks of social work.

The establishment and maintenance of a satisfactory relationship between the social agencies and the churches of any community is a matter of great importance, but such a relationship does not always exist. Social workers have frequently criticized religious organizations because their social work is not in skilled hands, because ministers do not recognize social work as a profession in the way in which the law or medicine is recognized, and because they feel that religious workers have little comprehension

of the complicated, technical factors in social work. On the other hand, pastors and other religious workers have been critical of the secularization of social work, holding that those engaged in it are frequently unaware of the spiritual aspects involved in social problems, and are incapable therefore of bringing spiritual resources to bear upon their solution. Increasingly, however, these attitudes are being replaced by mutual understanding and cooperation. Pastors and influential church members are functioning as important lay leaders in social work agencies—for example, as members of case committees—and there is a realization within many social work agencies that the spiritual factors are very important, particularly in activities which bear upon family life. There is also a growing recognition by both groups of the fact that for proper cooperation social work under religious auspices should be carried on by trained workers, that is, should be professionalized; also that religious leaders, particularly pastors, should become familiar with developments in social work.

In the absence of adequate statistics relating to Protestant social work, Worth M. Tippy, executive secretary of the Commission on the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, estimates that there are probably from 20,000 to 25,000 persons employed in some form of social work in local Protestant churches, in their church institutions, and in their missionary and other agencies.

Local Churches. The professional social work of local churches is varied and is confined almost entirely to cities. Recreational activities are the most frequent. Settlements are often under church control and neighborhood centers are maintained by churches to counteract the influences that make for juvenile delinquency. The Boy Scouts of America have about 11,000 troops in Protestant churches, and find that church troops in general tend to show a stability which others do not. The local church has always assumed that it ought to promote family welfare, and pastors and members of church staffs deal constantly with family disorganization. A small proportion of these staff members—deaconesses, church visitors, and others—have taken training in social case work in connection with their church activities, and some have gone into church visiting after previous training in the social case work field. The Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations are largely supported by members of Protestant churches. Institutional churches are numerous, and the work of some of them has been expanded to include family case work, health education, and mental hygiene. These activities are frequently in competition with the work of community or nondenominational agencies. On that account some churches are giving up such functions and are concentrating upon worship and religious education. Others, however, probably equal in number, are maintaining control over social activities. Some data on the trends in this particular are presented in *The Church in the Changing City*, 1927, and *1000 City Churches*, 1926, by H. Paul Douglass.

Within the past 10 or 15 years there has been a growing tendency for city churches to commit some forms of their social work to local councils or federations of churches. Social service is only one of the many interests of these federations, but in so far as it is undertaken, they ordinarily cooperate closely with local councils of social agencies or community chests, or with particular social agencies of their communities. There were 45 city federations or councils of churches in 1929. The activities most frequently undertaken in the field of social work were the following: "Cooperative relations with community social agencies or community chests; work for delinquents or dependents in the courts or public institutions; promotion of observances having social significance, such as Labor or Armistice Sundays; promotion of social legislation;

agitation for law enforcement, particularly the prohibition laws." (*The Social Work of the Churches,* edited by F. Ernest Johnson, 1930.) Frequently church federations assist in the general financial campaigns of federated social agencies; there is some participation in probation or other court work, and a few federations employ case workers. For a full description of the work of federated church agencies the reader is referred to Chapter IV of the book just mentioned.

Institutions and Special Organizations. Institutional work is probably the best known form of social service under church auspices. Protestant churches in the United States support more than 340 hospitals or sanitaria, 310 homes for the aged, and 400 institutions for children or child-placing agencies. A more exact enumeration of these organizations is impossible because of variations in the degree of their sectarian control, and in the extent to which particular church institutions, or the several Protestant denominations nationally, insist upon having preference given, in matters of admissions, to individuals of their own communion. About one-half the homes for the aged operated by Protestant churches specify that they will take only applicants who are members of the denomination sponsoring the home, or at least will give preference to such applicants. (*Care of Aged Persons in the United States,* by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, 1929.) The policies of most Protestant hospitals and institutions for children are just the reverse. The majority of the hospitals sponsored by Protestant churches are of the general type, though a few specialize in service for children, or for tubercular, psychopathic, or other types of patients. Church homes for the aged include some operated particularly for aged clergymen and their wives. Most homes for the aged receive both sexes and require the payment of an entrance fee.

The majority of children's organizations care for those who are dependent or neglected, either by means of institutions, through placement in family homes, free or at board, or through adoption. In a few instances church institutions furnish aid to mothers to enable them to keep their children with them at home. A limited number of institutions and child-placing agencies specialize in the care of cripples, epileptics, children presenting behavior problems, or convalescent children. For the most part, however, the service is not specialized. Moreover, admission and discharge ordinarily follow more or less rigid rules as to age, parental status, or destitution. Probably two-thirds of the institutional and placement services for children under Protestant auspices are carried on without the benefit of social case work. City institutions and agencies ordinarily participate in community chests or councils, but there are a few cities in which no Protestant institution for children is so affiliated.

National Bodies. Fourteen Protestant religious bodies maintain one or more executive organizations responsible for social service. These are the following:

Baptist Churches
Congregational Churches
Disciples of Christ
Evangelical Synod of North America
Methodist Episcopal Church
Methodist Episcopal Church, South
Moravian Church
Presbyterian Church in the United States of America
Protestant Episcopal Church
Reformed Church in the United States
Society of Friends
Unitarian Churches
United Lutheran Church
Universalist Churches

Five other Protestant religious bodies maintain standing committees on the subject. The important work of these bodies is fully described in *The Social Work of the Churches,* previously referred to. Some denominational boards have home missionary departments which specialize in promoting services, largely social, for under-privileged and immigrant population groups, stimulating and guiding local organizations which work with prisoners, juvenile offenders, and the

unemployed, or which carry on relief work and recreation programs.

The Commission on the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council of Churches has functioned in this field since 1908 as a clearing house for information for the 27 constituent bodies of the council, and has done much to guide their social service policies. In its child welfare program it cooperates closely with the Child Welfare League of America and has similar relations with many other agencies. It has also been influential in the formulation of statements of social faith and ideals, and jointly with other commissions of the council it has shared in promoting programs for social education. Significant examples of the latter are the inter-racial committees formed in many cities and the program of sex education carried on with the cooperation of the American Social Hygiene Association.

Social research has been developed to a considerable extent by Protestant organizations. Conspicuous in that field is the Institute of Social and Religious Research, an independent agency formed in 1921. The Department of Research and Education of the Federal Council, organized in 1918, has also collected, interpreted, and issued in concise form pertinent social data affecting religious organizations. Its weekly *Information Service* has been its main channel of expression, though special reports have also been issued. The department serves generally as an information bureau on social questions for religious workers.

Developments and Events, 1929. Steps were taken during the year for the organization of a conference of church social work, to hold its first session at Boston in 1930 in conjunction with the National Conference of Social Work. The proposed conference will provide for special denominational units, and will furnish opportunity for discussion of the outstanding problems of social work from the standpoint of the participating religious organizations. The year also marked the organization and first meeting in Europe of the International Conference of Inner Mission and Church Social Work. The permanent headquarters of the conference is in Berlin. During the year the Commission on the Church and Social Service of the Federal Council began a revision of its Statement on Social Ideals, through a committee of which Edward T. Devine was chairman. Reports from social workers in different cities indicate a number of developments in church social work during the year, the most significant of which were the following: Enlarged staffs of the five New York City churches which have social service departments; an increasing number of Negro churches in Chicago developing social work; and, in general, theological students in increasing numbers taking courses in schools of social work or gaining experience by means of field work in social agencies.

CONSULT: Johnson, F. Ernest: *Social Work of the Churches* (Federal Council of Churches), 1930 (includes a comprehensive bibliography); Federal Council of Churches: "What Your Church Can Do," in *Social Service and Industrial Relations*, 1929 (pamphlet); Douglass, H. Paul: *The Church in the Changing City*, 1927, and *1000 City Churches*, 1926, and other publications of the Institute of Social and Religious Research; Myers, James M.: *Religion Lends a Hand*, 1929; and issues of *Information Service* (Federal Council of Churches), the *Social Service Bulletin* (Methodist Federation of Social Service), *Church and Society* (Congregational Education Society), and *Social Trends* (Board of Temperance and Social Welfare of the Disciples of Christ).

BENSON Y. LANDIS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PROVIDENT ASSOCIATIONS. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

PROVIDENT LOANS. *See* SMALL LOANS.

PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN are a development of the last 20 years for the diagnosis and treatment of be-

havior problems—often called personality or habit problems. Such clinics are known by a variety of names, among the most common of which are child guidance clinic, institute of juvenile research, bureau of children's guidance, habit-training clinic. For the service given to adults in psychiatric clinics *see* MENTAL DISEASES, MENTAL HYGIENE, and CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS.

Psychiatric clinics for children accept behavior problems (sometimes called personality or habit cases) of varying degrees of severity ranging from that of the child without any specific complaint, for whom a mental health examination is asked, to that of the epileptic or otherwise grossly abnormal child. As a rule, however, the service is given to those whose problems promise to be beyond the capacity for examination and therapy of the school or other agencies of the community. There is a tendency also to exclude the following groups: severe cases of delinquency of long duration and without obvious psychopathological features; the psychopathological cases requiring hospitalization; and the feeble-minded. Although most of the accepted patients are of the dependent or marginal classes, the child guidance clinics especially are beginning to treat more children of the comfortable or even the affluent classes than are ordinarily treated in the usual psychiatric clinics. Repeated attempts have been made to develop a plan for requiring fees from those who can afford them, but no satisfactory procedure has yet been found.

History and Present Status. Psychiatric clinics especially designed for service to children had three main sources. The Juvenile Psychopathic Institute of Chicago, founded by Dr. William Healy through the beneficence of Mrs. William Dummer in 1909, was the culmination of 10 years of juvenile court experience in which the need for more scientific methods of approach had been made evident. The value of the clinical psychologist to such a program was demonstrated at that Institute. In 1912, independent of the Chicago development, a clinic for children was opened at the newly founded Boston Psychopathic Hospital. In that institution interest in the child arose from the discovery that children's problems so frequently antedated the mental disorders of later life. Social service assistance was especially developed there, and its value demonstrated. At the Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic in Baltimore service for children was begun in 1913, and again social service was brought into close working relationship with psychiatry. Special studies were made of the public school and other community factors in the problems of children.

Up to 1922 psychiatric work with children emanated largely from these three sources. During those years also interrelationships became closer between social service agencies and clinical staffs. In 1922 the Commonwealth Fund, through its Program for the Prevention of Delinquency, sponsored this psychiatric approach to the behavior problems of childhood. Its original interest in the prevention of delinquency soon evolved into emphasis upon child guidance as a means to mental health, and found expression in the development of child guidance clinics. Increased clarification of aims, improved standards of training for the clinic staffs, better balance of the clinics' internal organization, and more intelligent community participation in psychiatric work with children came as a result of the five-year program financed by the Commonwealth Fund. Since 1927 the child guidance movement has continued on its own velocity; refinement of technique has progressed, centers of training have increased, and new affiliations within the community and between national agencies have been established.

The directory published by the Commonwealth Fund in June, 1928, lists about 470 psychiatric clinics, ranging from traveling clinics which spend only a few days each year in any given community, to clinics with several full-time psychiatrists and a corresponding number of psychologists and

social workers. Some clinics have also a pediatrician, a sociologist, a recreation specialist, a statistician, and special research workers. The 102 clinics with a minimum staff of psychiatrist, psychologist, and psychiatric social workers were classified as child guidance clinics. Fifty-three of these, mostly traveling clinics provided by the state, were open only from one to four hours a week. Twenty-five clinics offered from five to 25 hours of service a week, while 24 clinics were open from 25 to 40 hours a week, and for the most part had full-time staff members employed. For eight years there has been a steady annual increase of about 200 clinic hours in the service available each week in the United States.

The number of privately supported clinics has shown a marked increase in recent years. Some of them are endowed and a few are jointly financed by a group of agencies. Some budgets, where a full-time staff is employed, reach $60,000 a year. Some depend upon unpaid psychiatric service, but because of the scarcity of well-trained men, and the amount of time required per case, unpaid service is more difficult to obtain in this field than in other branches of medicine. Clinics established under public auspices include the following: those operated by state departments of public welfare, health or mental hygiene; those attached to state hospitals and universities; and those attached to courts, public schools, or other branches of the city or county government.

Clinics may serve the community generally, or may be limited to public school children or to the clients of the juvenile court or other social agencies or institutions. Some have been so situated as to provide teaching and training at a college or university center. Clinics may be administered independently or as part of a larger health or welfare service. Psychiatric service to children is limited almost entirely to the larger urban communities. A few experiments in service to rural communities are under way.

In addition to services to children, child guidance clinics carry on a considerable amount of community education. This may take the form of parental education, but their most far-reaching activity in this line is that carried on with teachers, social workers, clergymen, judges, court workers, physicians, nurses, and other professional workers who are faced with behavior problems in the children with whom they have to deal. The effectiveness of the clinics' efforts with these groups is increased by the fact that the cases referred by them provide a sound basis for clinical teaching. In some instances workers and students are accepted as members of the clinic staff for periods up to a year for training purposes. Sometimes this is in cooperation with schools of social work, or in conjunction with fellowships as a formal part of training. Supervised clinical work, attendance at case conferences and lectures, and participation in round table discussions and research projects enter into such training.

Two other functions of child guidance clinics require mention. Some clinics use the knowledge they gain of gaps in the social structure of the community to stimulate the organization of needed activities. The second function is that of research, based upon case records. This is fundamental to the advancement of knowledge in the child guidance field, and its results are seen in the many important publications of recent years. From 1921 to 1928 the number of articles relating to the personality and mental problems of children increased fivefold, whereas those in the related fields of mental deficiency and juvenile delinquency remained the same.

The development of the sciences of child psychology and psychopathology and increased knowledge of the functions of the family have brought psychiatric clinics into closer relationship with child welfare work than with any other field. This is evidenced by the frequency of contact between the National Committee for Mental Hygiene and the Child Welfare League of America, by the requirement of psychiatric experience for

certain positions in child welfare agencies, by the occurrence of such programs as that of the New England Home for Little Wanderers, where psychiatric examination is a routine matter for all children under its care, and by the influence of child-placing principles and techniques upon clinic examination and treatment.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. There are relatively few places where specific training is given for psychiatric work with children. Psychiatrists should be graduates of a Class A medical school, and if possible have had also a general interneship and about two years of psychiatric hospital work. For persons with such preparation fellowships, for the most part designed to prepare them especially to work with children, are offered by the Commonwealth Fund, the National Committee for Mental Hygiene, the Henry Phipps Psychiatric Clinic at Baltimore, and the Boston Psychopathic Hospital. In addition, preparation may be had through staff appointment as assistants at the Institute for Juvenile Research in Chicago and at several of the larger clinics. The qualified persons provided through these means are, however, far from sufficient to meet the demand.

The clinic psychologist is a college graduate with post-graduate training in the application of measurements and methods of testing mental capacities and achievements. Experience in the field of education is an asset. As a rule the degree of master of arts is required, and the degree of doctor of philosophy is desirable if obtained through an extension of the preparation just mentioned. Fellowships are available for psychologists at the Institute for Child Guidance in New York. There are more applicants for openings in clinics than there are vacancies. This is largely due to the lack of standards in training. For well-trained persons opportunities are plentiful.

Developments and Events, 1929. At Tulane University a clinic was opened during the year to serve New Orleans and to provide a training center for the schools of medicine and social service. A new clinic was organized also at the University of Indiana Medical School. In Virginia, without direct legislation, a Bureau of Mental Hygiene was created in the State Department of Public Welfare and the child guidance clinic was made its first responsibility. A significant conference was held in New York in March under the auspices of the Commonwealth Fund and the Division on Community Clinics of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene. This dealt with the relationships between clinics and social service agencies and the extent to which community agencies and clinics can carry cases jointly. The phases, techniques, and theories of such cooperative work were discussed. During the year continued improvement was reported in the details of case analysis and in the practical character of the treatment given. There was also more general agreement that cases should be accepted for examination on the basis of the outlook for improvement and the appropriateness of service by the clinic rather than by some other agency. In some clinics, possibly, less educational work was carried on with parents, but increased attention was given to professional groups who deal with children.

Benefactions of the year included the following: In Niagara Falls, through the Beeman Foundation, a fund was made available under which about $20,000 a year is to be spent in child guidance; the Commonwealth Fund contributed $10,000 to a clinic established in the State Department of Public Welfare in Virginia, a demonstration project for work of this type in small communities, and gave $9,000 to the clinic at Tulane University and lesser amounts to other clinics; clinical work at the University of Rochester received a substantial grant from the Rockefeller Foundation; the Children's Fund of Michigan was organized, and as a first step in its mental hygiene program for children a research clinic was projected for the city of Detroit; and the Institute of Human Relations at Yale, estab-

lished during 1929, announced a program of clinical activity which will include psychiatric work for children. Studies in progress during the year include under the auspices of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene the preparation of a manual for child guidance work and a history of the evolution and development of the child guidance clinic movement; a project is also under way for joint experimentation by about 20 child guidance clinics to evolve a method of critical evaluation of their own work.

Legislation, 1929. Legislation in this field deals chiefly with providing facilities and authority to state departments and state hospitals for serving their territories. During the year Delaware obtained a $10,000 appropriation for extra-mural hospital work, a part of which is for child guidance. This is a nucleus for a later full-time child guidance clinic for the state. A similar program was made possible for the Board of Health of Connecticut under an $18,000 appropriation. Provision was also made for psychiatric service in California through its state institutions, and a state appropriation of $20,000 for a mental survey is preparing the way for a more extensive state program of mental hygiene.

CONSULT: Healy, William: *The Individual Delinquent*, 1915; Judge Baker Foundation: *Case Studies*, 1922–1923; Sayles, Mary Buell: *The Problem Child at Home*, 1928; Lee and Kenworthy: *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*, 1929; Clark, Mary A.: *Handbook of Recording and Reporting for Child Guidance Clinics*, 1930; also the following publications of the Commonwealth Fund: *Three Problem Children*, 1928; *Directory of Psychiatric Clinics for Children*, 1928; and *The Child Guidance Clinic and the Community* (pamphlet), 1928.

GEORGE S. STEVENSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK is a "form of social case work usually established within psychiatric agencies as a form of service essential to the medical program. . . . A qualified worker might be described as one who has achieved a mastery of the subject matter of psychiatry not ordinarily achieved by social workers and a mastery of social case work not ordinarily achieved by psychiatrists." (Lee and Kenworthy, *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*, 1929, pp. 161 and 162.) A second type of psychiatric social work is that of the consultant in a social or health agency who applies her training and experience to direct workers in such an agency in the understanding and use of psychiatric facilities and the application of the mental hygiene point of view. Still a third application of psychiatric social work has been outside the case work field, in community work and research.

History and Present Status. Psychiatric social work as a definite movement originated during the World War. Previously a few social workers had been employed in hospitals for mental and nervous diseases; in 1905 in the Neurological Clinic of the Massachusetts General Hospital, and a year later at Bellevue Hospital in New York City. In 1910 the New York State Charities Aid Association provided an after-care worker for patients discharged from state hospitals, and the following year secured the appointment of a social worker to the staff of Manhattan State Hospital. In 1913 Danvers State Hospital and Boston State Hospital in Massachusetts inaugurated social work. In 1913 also a social service department was included in the newly established Boston Psychopathic Hospital, and soon after social service was started at Johns Hopkins Hospital (Baltimore) in the Phipps Psychiatric Clinic. Out of these centers and many others came the impetus toward the development of the specialization of psychiatric social work.

In 1917 came the demand for psychiatric aides for the Neuropsychiatric Division of the Medical Department of the United States Army, and the National Committee for Mental Hygiene in 1918 arranged for the

organization of a six-month training course for psychiatric aides at Smith College, under the direction of Dr. Ernest E. Southard of the Boston Psychopathic Hospital. Fifty graduates of the Smith course entered army hospitals and Red Cross organizations. This course later developed into the Smith College School of Social Work, a graduate school now granting the degree of M.S.S. By 1920 additional training courses were being offered at the New York School of Social Work and at the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research in connection with the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy. Since that time special emphasis on the necessity of preliminary training for entrance into this field has been successfully maintained.

The widespread use of both individual and group tests in the Army increased the general appreciation of the additional contribution to the study of personality made by the psychologist. Soon evolved the clinic unit—consisting of the psychiatrist, the psychiatric social worker, and the psychologist—which now exists in a majority of hospitals and clinics for nervous and mental diseases. The staff meeting, in which social, psychological, medical, and psychiatric findings are discussed by the clinic group, is an outgrowth of this alignment and has undoubtedly been one of the factors contributing to the development of psychiatric social work. The support given by the Commonwealth Fund to schools of social work and child guidance since 1921 and the continued interest of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene have been of inestimable benefit to the field of psychiatric social work. *See* Psychiatric Clinics for Children and Mental Hygiene.

Psychiatric social work under public auspices has developed extensively in connection with the state hospitals for mental disease and state schools for the feebleminded, the greatest numbers of workers being employed in Massachusetts, New York, Pennsylvania, and Illinois. Over 100 are attached to state hospitals. The development of the Boston Psychopathic Hospital as a research and training center presaged an unusual development of psychiatric social work under state auspices which has been carried out only to a degree. The Colorado Psychopathic Hospital, the Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research, and the Divisions on Prevention of the Massachusetts and the New York state departments of mental hygiene have used psychiatric social workers in state-wide clinic projects, organizing, and educational work. The Division on the Examination of Persons Accused of Crime in Massachusetts employs psychiatric social workers as does also the Division of Mental Hygiene of the Connecticut State Department of Health. A large group are in the United States Veterans' Bureau Hospitals, whose district offices have taken over most of the psychiatric social work done by the American Red Cross immediately after the World War.

Psychiatric social work under private auspices has been carried on in connection with the mental hygiene clinics for adults, for children, and for both adults and children which have emerged under many different auspices during the past 10 years. Large general hospitals and clinics have employed psychiatric social workers in neuropsychiatric wards and outpatient clinics, and to a limited extent private hospitals for mental and nervous diseases and psychiatrists in private practice have also employed them.

However, the most phenomenal increase in the number of psychiatric social work positions has been outside the established medical centers. State and city societies for mental hygiene, community chests and councils, juvenile courts, courts of domestic relations, reformatories, protective associations, child-caring institutions and family welfare societies, a number of school systems, an industrial concern or two, nursery schools, vocational adjustment centers, and recreational groups have all sponsored and organized mental hygiene clinics, with psychiatric social workers as indispensable members of the staff.

It is estimated that about 10 per cent of

the psychiatric social workers are individually employed in mental hygiene societies as organizers and educators, in schools as counsellors, in social and health agencies as consultants, in schools of social work as teachers of psychiatric social work, and in various organizations as research workers.

Psychiatric social workers are called on more and more for educational work by means of talks, courses in mental hygiene and psychiatric social work, and radio broadcasting. There is a trend toward more consultation work by individuals in addition to organized clinic cooperative work. Curiously enough, the development of psychiatric social work in the colleges has not paralleled the unusual development of psychiatric consultation, few colleges having psychiatric social workers on the mental hygiene staff. In family welfare organizations psychiatric social workers are being employed as district secretaries rather than as consultant psychiatric social workers. The general trend is toward the extensive application of present psychiatric social work knowledge and technique rather than more intensive cultivation of the special field of psychiatric social work.

The fields of mental hygiene and psychiatric social work are not coextensive. All psychiatric agencies do not employ psychiatric social workers and all psychiatric social workers are not in psychiatric agencies. Psychiatric social work is well developed in community clinics, however, and the increase of clinics connected with social agencies has naturally increased the demand for psychiatric social workers employed under private auspices, while the demand for mental hygiene supervisors in agencies lacking complete clinic facilities is still greater.

No complete figures on the number of psychiatric social workers in the United States are available. Roughly estimated, there are about 550 psychiatric social workers, divided as follows:

In clinics and hospitals under public auspices	220
In clinics and hospitals under private auspices	270
In non-clinic positions	60
Total	550

The American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers had on March 1, 1930, 300 members—somewhat more than half the estimated number of psychiatric social workers. The available information concerning the positions occupied by 220 members gives their distribution as follows:

In clinics and hospitals under public auspices	52
In clinics and hospitals under private auspices	124
In non-clinic positions	44
Total	220

More than 75 per cent of the psychiatric social workers in the Association are working under private clinic, hospital, and social auspices, although 40 per cent of the known positions are under public auspices. This probably results from the fact that the privately supported agencies are able to pay better salaries and demand trained workers. Contrary to the usual trend, psychiatric social work seems to have originated under public auspices and later to have been taken over by private agencies.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Mental hygiene clinics under private auspices almost invariably require psychiatric social workers to be graduates of schools of social work. The personnel of the child-guidance clinics is about 90 per cent school trained. In 1928, of 202 members of the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, 163 were graduates of schools of social work—a percentage higher than at present. Thus the impression has been given that only persons with this equipment are able to enter the field. This is not altogether true, for medical social workers in general hospitals and nurses in state hospitals for the insane occasionally transfer to psychiatric social service without additional training, and a considerable number of social workers with general case work training have also done this. Practically no recognized form of apprenticeship training exists.

Civil service examinations are given for positions in psychiatric social work under the United States Veterans' Bureau. The re-

quirements are education and experience ranging from college graduation plus a year of psychiatric social case work, six months of hospital social work, or one year of family case work or graduation from a nine months' course in a school of social work, to graduation from high school plus three years of case work, and in addition a thesis but no formal examination. The New York State Department of Mental Hygiene requires completion of a course of training in a recognized school for psychiatric social work, a high school diploma or its equivalent, graduation from college or from a recognized school of nursing, and in addition gives a written examination on mental diseases, mental deficiency, mental hygiene, and so forth. The relative weight of the examination is four points, and of other qualifications, six points. The requirements for chief social workers under state auspices are higher.

According to a study made by the Committee on Professional Education of the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers, the following schools state that they offer special training for psychiatric social work: the New York School of Social Work, Smith College School for Social Work, Simmons College School of Social Work, National Catholic School of Social Service, Western Reserve University School of Applied Social Sciences, Tulane University School of Social Work, University of Chicago Graduate School of Social Service and Administration, and Pennsylvania School of Social and Health Work. The Commonwealth Fund offers twelve scholarships in psychiatric social work at the New York School, eight at Smith College School, four or five at Western Reserve University, and others at Tulane University. These represent the majority of the scholarships offered in this field. Western Reserve University has four additional scholarships and the Smith College School, thirteen.

Developments and Events, 1929. Psychiatric social work, previously established in two settlements as part of a mental hygiene clinic set-up, was discontinued during the year. A two-day conference on Co-operative Phases of Psychiatric Social Work held in New York City under the auspices of the Division on Community Clinics, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, indicated the growing concern with the consultation and cooperative aspects of psychiatric social work, and showed an increasing tendency among psychiatric social workers to regard themselves as copartners with other social workers, rather than as mentors. A general increase in the number of new positions of all types is noted.

CONSULT: Odencrantz, Louise C.: *The Social Worker in Family, Medical, and Psychiatric Social Work*, 1929; Lee and Kenworthy: *Mental Hygiene and Social Work*, 1929; American Association of Social Workers: *Vocational Aspects of Psychiatric Social Work*, 1929; and Southard and Jarrett: *Kingdom of Evils*, 1922.

KATHLEEN ORMSBY LARKIN

For related articles *see* titles in TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES are known to an increasing extent by names such as department of public welfare, bureau of social welfare, social service department, or family welfare department. These names are replacing the titles poor commissions, overseers of the poor, and kindred names with which in the past public relief officials have been designated, and to a very considerable extent still are designated. A change in the spirit of administration frequently accompanies the change of name.

History and Present Status. The abuse of public relief, in large measure due to inept administration, led to its discontinuance in certain large cities in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. Brooklyn is a classic illustration. Other cities in which major responsibility for outdoor relief was left with private societies include New York City, Baltimore, Philadelphia, Washington, St.

Louis, Kansas City, and San Francisco. Although largely abolished in these cities, public outdoor relief persisted in other cities, and universally in towns and in rural sections, since in these areas private societies were but rarely organized. Beginning with the second decade of the twentieth century new impetus was given to the reform of poor law administration. A number of influences were at work, including emphasis upon the social causation of poverty; the movement for aid to mothers with dependent children, which had the backing of a major political party in the campaign of 1912; and the influence of private agencies engaged in case work with families. Surveys in a number of cities revealed the need for higher standards in public departments. The contribution of Denver was noteworthy because there the administration of public outdoor relief was placed in the hands of a woman of enthusiasm and vision who carried into the field of public relief the standards of family care which had been developed by family welfare societies as a result of 35 years of experimentation. A more recent stimulus for better care of families in their own homes came during and after the World War. Interest in social work became nation wide, and for the first time careful attention was given to rural social work. The influence of the American Red Cross was noteworthy, possibly the deepest impress being made upon the South.

No country-wide figures exist as to the extent and cost of the public activities in this field. In Pennsylvania, however, the Public Charities Association reports that the amount spent for outdoor relief in 1926, not including mothers' assistance, was $1,415,998. It was estimated that there were 37,410 children in the families aided, and that during the year 800 children passed through the almshouses of the state. The State Charities Aid Association of New York reports that outdoor relief in that state in 1927, outside of New York City, was granted to 67,195 persons, the relief aggregating $2,342,577.

The relationship between private family welfare societies and public departments varies from city to city and from state to state. A time-honored arrangement has been for private societies to leave the care of the aged, and other long-time problems such as those involving chronic illness, to the public agency, concentrating their service upon families with potential resources in need of development where case work is most needed and fruitful. In a number of cities and counties in Iowa the so-called Iowa Plan was adopted, by which a trained social worker was secured and paid jointly to act as secretary of the family welfare society and as overseer of the poor. In several cities in Ohio the private society became the disbursing agency for public funds. The tax roll provided funds for relief, while private initiative supplied service. The most recently proposed division of the field was outlined in the report of the Committee on Future Program of the Family Welfare Association of America, presented to that Association at its meeting in 1929 and to be published in 1930. It advises that wherever public welfare agencies have developed adequate case work standards, families whose dependency is primarily or chiefly due to community conditions be cared for by the public agency; that families where dependency is more largely due to personal causes be cared for by the private agency, and that responsibility for families not clearly in either of these groups be decided upon after conferences between the two agencies.

Perhaps the most ambitious public development in this field is found in Detroit. There the department of public welfare carries general responsibility for the family welfare work of the city. An unpaid board, appointed by the mayor, has charge of the public department and the staff is chosen by civil service examinations. Due to unemployment this department bore a crushing load during 1929; expenditures of the year for relief aggregated $1,805,117, and the families under care during December num-

bered 15,812. The figures for 1930 will show a large increase over 1929.

Cook County, Ill. (including Chicago), entered upon a progressive plan for the improvement of public relief in 1927. The director and staff of the Bureau of Public Welfare were placed under civil service rules, with a citizens' committee, representative of civic and charitable effort in Chicago, sponsoring the new development, the goal of which was to substitute effective case work with more adequate relief for the inadequate system of doles which had previously obtained. Progress was retarded in 1929, however, because of the financial difficulties of the county. The staff of social workers was reduced, and the budget for 1930 requires a further reduction in personnel. In spite of current needs it was also necessary to curtail expenditures for relief.

It is interesting to note that the Family Welfare Association of America—representing the movement through which the first charity organization society was established in the United States in 1877, and which has sponsored since then the development of professional case work with families—considers the time ripe for the recognition of intelligent effort in public departments and has recently admitted several public agencies to membership as meeting accepted standards of family care. Among the first to be so admitted were the Bureau of Charity of Denver; the Charities Commission of Davidson County, Tenn., in which Nashville is located; the Family Welfare Division of the Welfare Board of Duval County, Jacksonville, Fla.; the Division of Public Welfare of the Department of Health and Welfare of Fort Worth, Tex.; the Public Welfare Department of Orange County (Orlando), Fla.; the Bureau of Social Welfare of Charleston, S. C.; the Hardin County Social Service League of Eldora, Ia.; and the Dane County Department of Outdoor Relief of Madison, Wis.

Developments and Events, 1929. The most striking development of the year was the great increase in outdoor relief in the later months as a result of the industrial depression and the ensuing unemployment. The extent to which this burden fell upon public agencies is shown by the fact that out of an expenditure for outdoor relief of $3,426,864, reported for December to the Department of Statistics of the Russell Sage Foundation by 316 agencies in 75 cities, the amount spent by public agencies was $2,471,807, or 72 per cent, while $955,057, or 28 per cent, was similarly expended by private agencies. Of public expenditures, $1,033,407 was for general outdoor relief, $1,142,301 for mothers' aid, and $296,099 for veterans' relief. *See* MOTHERS' AID and VETERANS.

The most important legislative enactment during the year was a law (Laws, 1929, Ch. 565) providing for the reorganization of poor relief in New York State. The Poor Law became the Public Welfare Law. Whereas the almshouse had been legally recognized as the fundamental institution for relief of destitution, the new law provides for relief in the home unless the need for institutional care is clearly indicated. Under the new law also an effort is made to define and encourage the practice of intelligent social case work. The county superintendent of the poor becomes the county commissioner of public welfare, and the primary responsibility for administration rests with the county as a unit rather than with towns and cities as at present.

LITERATURE in this field, of a comprehensive character and relating to recent conditions, is limited. Reports of the larger state departments of public welfare, such as those of Massachusetts and Indiana, usually include statistics of outdoor relief, and several local surveys of public relief agencies have been published. For the early period consult papers on the subject read before the National Conference of Social Work and indexed in the *Guide to the Proceedings of the National Conference of Charities and Corrections*, 1908; Warner, Amos Griswold: *American Charities* (revised edition by M. R. Coolidge), 1908; and Warfield, George A.: *Outdoor Relief in Missouri*, 1915. For more recent developments see Kelso, Robert W.: *The Science of Public Welfare*, 1928, and *Proceedings of National Conference of*

Social Work, especially articles by Gertrude Vaile and Thomas J. Riley in 1915; by Eugene T. Lies in 1916; and by Louise Cottrell in 1926.

FRED R. JOHNSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PUBLIC DANCE HALLS are places for dancing open to the public on payment of a fee. Included are cabarets, hotels, roadhouses, and other places where food is served during the dancing, and also halls rented by promoters for occasional dances. Thirty-one states have regulatory laws. Some affect all public dances in the state, or all not regulated by city ordinances, while others apply only to dances held outside the limits of municipal corporations. Practically every state has authorized cities or towns to prohibit or regulate and license public amusements. Replies to inquiries made in 1924 by the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor indicated that at least 240 cities then had regulatory ordinances. The first step toward supervision of public dancing is the requirement that dance halls must be licensed and that individuals or organizations holding dances must obtain permits. Inspection of the premises is sometimes required before a license is issued, or investigation is made of the reputation and standing of the applicant. The exclusion of very young unattended minors from public dance halls and the limitation of hours of attendance of those somewhat older are the most difficult regulations to enforce. In some cities girls who are too young are sent home at 10 o'clock, after their parents have been notified by telephone that they are on their way. In one city investigated by the Children's Bureau the night matron of the detention home took girls to their own homes if they were first offenders, and to the detention home if repeaters. In another city the supervisor visited the home of any boys or girls who were required to register by the dance hall manager. If they were found to be under 18, they were reported to the manager, whose task in the future was to exclude them from the hall.

In 12 of the 15 cities studied by the Children's Bureau in 1925 and 1926 women inspectors were in charge and in two other cities they were employed as assistants. In nine cities the inspectors were under the police department; in two the work was done by private agencies with police support; and in another the assistant county probation officer had dance hall inspection as one of her responsibilities. The best results seem to have been obtained when a city inspector is in charge of the enforcement of the regulations and "hostesses" are employed in every hall. The latter are women employed by the dance hall managers and paid by them. Their employment is sometimes required by law. In such cases they are selected, or their appointment is approved, by the mayor or chief of police. Hostesses exercise supervision of dances to see that there is no disorderly or improper conduct. They also usually have the difficult task of discovering and excluding those who are under the specified minimum age. It has been demonstrated that if dance hall regulation is intelligently applied, it is possible to obtain the cooperation of managers and the interest of the public. Such a combination leads to more wholesome conditions and an enrichment of the recreational quality of this form of amusement.

Training Requirements. In four of the 15 cities that were studied in 1925 and 1926 it was demanded in the required civil service examinations that applicants should have knowledge of social case work and the ability to develop a dance hall program, or citizens' associations were consulted in obtaining a capable person. Four other cities had trained social workers as chief inspectors. The women employed as hostesses in San Francisco were required to have some experience in social case work, and were also given some practical training after appoint-

ment. In several other cities new appointees, before being placed in charge of halls, were assigned to halls where successful matrons were employed.

Developments and Events, 1929. There was no weakening of dance hall regulations during the year. Laws strengthening existing regulations were passed in five states (Minn., Ch. 264; Mont., Ch. 131; Oreg., Ch. 381; Wisc., Ch. 195; and Wyo., Ch. 59). One of these laws extended the application of existing regulations to dance halls operated outside of the limits of incorporated cities or towns, the control of roadhouses being a real problem at present. That problem, and the one presented by night clubs, were studied during the year in several cities, among them Chicago, Boston, New Haven, and New York.

CONSULT: Lambin, Maria W.: *Report of the Advisory Dance Hall Committee of the Women's City Club and the City Recreation Committee*, New York, 1924; Bostwick, Andrew: *The Regulation of Public Dance Halls* (St. Louis Public Library Monthly Bulletin, Vol. 12, No. 8), July, 1914; Gardner, Ella: *Public Dance Halls* (Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor Bulletin No. 189), 1929; Ross, Mary: "Blowing on the Flame of Youth," in the *Survey Graphic*, December, 1929; and Worthington, George: "The Night Clubs of New York," in the *Survey Graphic*, January, 1929.

ELLA GARDNER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PUBLIC DEFENDERS. *See* LEGAL AID.

PUBLIC HEALTH is "the whole science and art of the conservation and promotion of health both in individuals and communities. It has for its function the prevention of premature death and the promotion of normal life, health, and happiness both directly by conservation and reinforcement of organisms and groups of organisms, and indirectly by the elimination or amelioration of unfavorable conditions both local and general."

This prophetic definition of public health was formulated by William Thompson Sedgwick in 1901 (Principles of Sanitary Science and the Public Health, pp. 17–18). He designated this the field of hygiene, further differentiating between public hygiene, which concerned communities, and personal hygiene, which concerned the individual. He adds: "There is undoubtedly a natural tendency for all questions of personal hygiene to become more and more problems of public hygiene." Thus Sedgwick's rich experience in the beginnings of public health work in this country in the last quarter of the nineteenth century quickened his perception of the importance of individual health which has become the characteristic emphasis of the public health movement of the twentieth century.

Prior to 1875 public health effort in the United States consisted mainly of the recording of births and deaths, the maintenance of municipal cleanliness, including some attention to public water supplies and sewage disposal, and the attempted control of epidemic outbreaks of cholera, yellow fever, and smallpox. These activities were by no means universal since public health organization was practically undeveloped.

It was only in 1877 that the germ theory of disease was established by the experiments of Pasteur. Then came the numerous discoveries of many of the bacteria causing infectious diseases, which formed the necessary scientific basis for public health work in the last quarter of the nineteenth century. In 1883 Koch demonstrated that cholera is caused by a micro-organism found in the intestinal discharges of cholera cases and is spread by the consumption of food and water contaminated with such infected discharges, thus giving to sanitary science a basis for the control of this disease. Two years before Koch demonstrated the cause of cholera, he was the co-discoverer, with Eberth, of the typhoid bacillus. Its mode of transmission was, like cholera, food and

water contaminated by typhoid-infected intestinal discharges. These discoveries indicated the importance of sanitary disposal of sewage and filtration of water supplies. The experimental study of methods of sewage disposal at the Lawrence Experiment Station, established in 1887 by the Massachusetts Board of Health, and the practical advances made by American cities in the construction of water filtration plants and sewerage systems were direct results of Koch's important bacteriological discoveries.

The diphtheria bacillus was discovered by Klebs and Loeffler in 1883–1884. About 10 years later Behring and Kitasato demonstrated the value of diphtheria antitoxin in the treatment of diphtheria. In 1893–1894 the laboratories of the New York City Board of Health, under the direction of Herman Biggs and William H. Park, began the laboratory diagnosis of diphtheria and the preparation of antitoxin. The rôle of the insect in the transmission of disease was first demonstrated by Ross' discovery, in 1895, that the Anopheles mosquito was the carrier of the malarial parasite. Shortly after this, Reed, Carroll, Lazear, and Agramonte demonstrated that the mosquito (Aedes aegypti) is also the transmitting agent of yellow fever.

The period 1875–1900 in the public health history of the United States may then be characterized as one of the assimilation and initial application of the results of the discoveries of Pasteur, Koch, and their immediate followers. During these years the infectious agents and source of infection of most of the communicable diseases and their mode of transmission had been discovered. On the foundations thus laid the modern public health movement slowly took form.

In the first decade of this century great progress was made in the construction of plants for the filtration of water supplies and the treatment of sewage. Further protection of the water supply followed the discovery of the value of bleaching powder and of liquid chlorine as disinfectants. Sanitary control was extended also to the milk supply by the development of dairy inspection. In this period experiments were being made with the commercial pasteurization of milk, and many cities now introduced pasteurization, although the availability of pasteurized milk remained limited.

These efforts to provide communities with safe water and milk supplies and to control communicable disease contributed indirectly to the solution of the problems of personal hygiene. The next step in meeting these problems was the direct education of the individual, which was accomplished by the simultaneous development of a technique of health instruction by public health nurses and the voluntary health associations.

Following Lillian D. Wald's successful demonstration of the value of a nurse in visiting children excluded from school, the New York Board of Health appointed 12 nurses to undertake this work, thus introducing school nursing as a health department activity. In 1903 the New York City Department of Health employed the first visiting nurses to undertake tuberculosis nursing under municipal direction. In 1906 the Visiting Nurse Association and Milk Fund Association of Cleveland established an Infants' Clinic for the care of sick and well infants, at which nurses gave instruction and assistance to mothers in the care of well babies.

In 1912 the visiting nurses throughout the country united their aims in the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, and thus the name as well as the scope of visiting nursing became allied with the public health movement. *See* Public Health Nursing.

Public health nursing was, then, the first means of approach to the problems of personal hygiene by individual education. The establishment of voluntary health associations constituted the second method of furthering public health effort by education. The public health nurse reached the family; her field was local. The voluntary health association, if local, was usually affiliated

with state or national associations which guided its program. These associations supplemented by mass education the more limited educational activities of health officers and public health nurses. Their activities were centralized by the creation in 1920 of the National Health Council of which they became members. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS.

Meantime, public health administration by official departments was undergoing development. The federal health administration was centered in the Public Health and Marine Hospital Service, so designated in 1902 following a period of 30 years under the name of the Marine Hospital Service. The Public Health and Marine Hospital Service was chiefly concerned with medical inspection of immigrants, maritime quarantine, and interstate control of disease. It also became responsible for "tests and control of biological products in interstate commerce." In 1911 a Division of School Hygiene was established in the Office of Education of the Department of the Interior. In 1912 the Children's Bureau was created in the Department of Commerce and Labor. State health departments were increasing in number and scope of service. In 1914 the New York State Department of Health was reorganized with nine administrative divisions, one of which was the Division of Child Hygiene, the first to be established by a state in this country. In this period the first county health departments were established, one in Yakima County, Wash., and another in Guilford County, N. C., being organized in 1911. Municipal health departments were likewise expanding and incorporating new activities in their programs.

While the urban population has received increasingly efficient health service through the growth of municipal health departments and private nursing and health associations, the health of the rural population has suffered from almost complete lack of organized service. There are in this country about 2,500 rural counties or districts the health needs of which should be met by the establishment of county health units. The number of such units did not exceed 50 until 1919; by 1929 almost 500 units had been established. Thus the development of rural health work is largely an accomplishment of the present decade. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH, LOCAL AGENCIES.

The extension of the public health program has brought an increasing demand for professionally trained health officers, public health nurses, statisticians, laboratory diagnosticians, and sanitary engineers. To meet this need many universities, notably Yale, Harvard, Johns Hopkins, and Michigan have established schools of public health which give professional training leading to the degrees of Doctor of Public Health, Doctor of Philosophy in Public Health, and the Certificate in Public Health. In addition to these intensive courses, numerous short courses have been arranged by state and county health departments—in cooperation in some cases with the Rockefeller Foundation and other voluntary groups—which give supplementary, practical training to health officers, public health nurses, and sanitary engineers.

With the growth in municipal health department activities, it became desirable to determine the status of health department practice and the degree of adequacy of health service. Accordingly, the health department practice in all cities of over 40,000 population by the 1920 census was surveyed in the period 1920–1924 by the American Public Health Association, the United States Public Health Service, and the American Child Health Association. The results of the survey of cities of 40,000 to 70,000 population have been published by the American Child Health Association in *A Health Survey of 86 Cities* (1925). The survey reports for cities of over 70,000 population have been published in Bulletin 136, *Report of the Committee on Municipal Health Department Practice* of the American Public Health Association in cooperation with the United States Public Health Service, and Bulletin 164, *Municipal Health Department Practice*

for the Year 1923, of the United States Public Health Service.

An outgrowth of these surveys was the development by the American Child Health Association and the American Public Health Association of an Appraisal Form, by which the health activities of a community might be rated on a quantitative basis. The use of this form in scoring the results of health department work has turned the attention of health departments to self-appraisal and the evaluation of the results of health work. Its development is stated by Charles V. Chapin to be "the most important event affecting the public health movement in the last decade." The American Public Health Association will make a triennial revision of the *Appraisal Form for City Health Work* so that it may remain "a fluent instrument for measuring current progress." This association has prepared also a tentative *Appraisal Form for Rural Health Work*, published in January, 1927, which it will revise as its surveys and studies of rural health work are extended.

The appraisal forms are of more fundamental importance as examples of a growing tendency to evaluate objectively the results of public health efforts. This tendency is apparent in the increasing application of scientific methods in the conduct of special health demonstrations and in the analysis of their results. Greater recognition is being made of the eugenic, social, and demographic factors which complicate public health effort. Critical study of public health procedure, especially in the control of communicable disease, is being made.

The trend of the death rate may be considered indicative of public health progress or retrogression, due allowance being made for interfering economic or social factors. General health improvement is indicated by the increase in expectation of life. In 1901 the expectation of life at birth for persons in the original registration states was 49.24 years; in this same area the expectation of life at birth among white persons had increased to 55.16 years in 1920. In 1927 expectation of life at birth had further increased to 59.10 years, for the population in the registration states as of 1920.

In the decade 1910–1920 this increased expectation of life was apparent not only at birth, but at almost all ages thereafter. The life tables for 1921–1927 show a less favorable picture. In three years of this period (1924, 1925, and 1927) the expectation of life at birth was greater than in 1921; but in 1922, 1923, and 1926 the expectation of life at birth was less than in 1921. Moreover, the expectation of life in all years, from the first to the ninetieth, has in no year of this period equalled the expectation in 1921. The increasing mortality at the higher age periods is thus reflected, and gives impetus to the expansion of the campaign against the diseases of middle age.

A consideration of changing mortality from the specific causes of death brings out more clearly the accomplishments and present problems of the public health program. In 1900 the leading cause of death was tuberculosis, the death rate from which was 201.2 per 100,000 in the United States Death Registration Area. In 1928 (latest figures available) the death rate from tuberculosis was 79.2 per 100,000 in the United States Death Registration Area; its position has been shifted from the first to the sixth place as a cause of death. Diarrhea and enteritis (all ages), with a death rate of 133.2 per 100,000 in 1900, has been reduced so markedly that the death rate from this cause in 1928 was only 26.8. Typhoid fever caused 35.9 deaths per 100,000 population in 1900; the death rate from this cause was only 4.9 in 1928.

Diphtheria and croup were important causes of death in 1900, with a rate of 43.3 per 100,000. As a result of the increasing immunization of children against diphtheria, the 1928 death rate was only 7.2 per 100,000. Deaths from the other communicable diseases of childhood—measles, scarlet fever, and whooping cough—likewise show large reductions since 1900. Smallpox mortality is now negligible, and malaria

deaths have been reduced to a small number annually.

Infant mortality has been very strikingly reduced in this century. Since the establishment of the Birth Registration Area in 1915, the rate has decreased from 100 to 69 per 1,000 live births. Infant mortality rates prior to 1915 are not available for a large part of the country, but the rate of infant deaths in New York City, which decreased from 205 to 137 per 1,000 infants under one year in the period 1898 to 1909, may be considered indicative of the trend. Maternal mortality, on the other hand, has remained practically stationary; while the death rate from puerperal septicemia has decreased, deaths from other puerperal causes have proportionately increased.

The striking change in the mortality of 1928 compared with that of 1900 is the interchange of position of the epidemic and degenerative diseases. In 1900 tuberculosis, diarrhea and enteritis, and diphtheria were important causes of death. Death rates from heart disease, chronic nephritis, and other diseases of adult life were high, but tuberculosis was the leading cause of death. In 1928 heart disease was the leading cause of death. The death rate from diseases of the heart has almost doubled since 1900. In that year the death rate from this cause was 111.2 per 100,000. In 1928 the death rate from diseases of the heart was 207.7 per 100,000. The death rate from cancer has increased from 63.0 per 100,000 in 1900 to 95.9 in 1928. Cerebral hemorrhage increased from 67.5 in 1900 to 87.0 in 1928, diabetes from 9.7 in 1900 to 19.0 in 1928, chronic nephritis from 89.0 in 1900 to 95 in 1928. It is important to note that the number of deaths from these causes showed slight increases in 1928 over the number occurring in 1927. Part of the increase in mortality from these causes may be attributed to improvement in classification of causes of death on death certificates, and to the changes in race composition of our population which have taken place since the beginning of the century. Nevertheless, after making allowance for these factors, there seems to have been a real increase in deaths from the so-called degenerative diseases: heart disease, nephritis, cerebral hemorrhage, and from cancer and diabetes, which forms a striking contrast to the decreasing mortality from the infectious diseases.

Developments and Events, 1929. One of the most important legislative measures in the public health field before Congress in 1929 was the Parker Bill, which became a law on April 9, 1930. As formulated originally, this bill provided for a coordination of federal health activities, but it has been modified to provide chiefly for a reorganization of the United States Public Health Service. Its outstanding features are its provisions for the detail of personnel of the United States Public Health Service to other government departments performing health work, when such detail is requested by department heads; the detail of the personnel of the Service to educational and research institutions, and the reciprocal right to offer to qualified scientists the facilities of the Hygienic Laboratory in Washington, D. C.; the establishment of new divisions of chemistry, zoology, and pharmacology at the Hygienic Laboratory; the granting of a commissioned status to sanitary engineers, dentists, and other qualified non-medical scientists; an increase in rank and pay for the Surgeon General; and the enlargement of the present Advisory Board of the Hygienic Laboratory to become a national advisory health council.

The most serious influenza outbreak since 1920 occurred in the winter of 1928–1929. An indication of the combined effect of the epidemics of the spring and winter of 1928 is reflected in the influenza death rate for 1928, which was 45.2 per 100,000 population in the United States Registration Area, the rate for the preceding year, 1927, being 22.6. The death rate for the Registration Area for the year 1929 is not yet available, but the indications are that the influenza death rate for 1929 will be equally high.

The pneumonia death rate showed a coincident rise from 80.5 in 1927 to 98.0 in 1928.

Among the research projects under way during the year was a study of Negro health in Tennessee, financed jointly by the State Department of Health, the Julius Rosenwald Fund, the United States Public Health Service, and the National Tuberculosis Association. The project included a social investigation under the direction of Fisk University, a study of malaria and ascariasis, in which Vanderbilt University, the Johns Hopkins School of Hygiene, the United States Public Health Service, and the State Department of Health cooperated, and studies of tuberculosis, infant mortality, and venereal disease.

The increased incidence of and mortality from psittacosis during the year stimulated research on the causative organism involved. The results of research by Charles Krumwiede, of the New York City Department of Health, and others, indicate that psittacosis is caused by a filterable virus and not, as formerly thought, by a member of the colon-typhoid group of bacteria. Research on the cause of the common cold was under way during the year by the John J. Abel Foundation at Johns Hopkins University.

For other events and developments in the field of public health during 1929, including the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, the Inter-Chamber Health Conservation Contest, the plan for a Morbidity Registration Area, the Conference for the Revision of the International Classification of Causes of Death, the establishment of the Thomas W. Salmon Memorial Fund and other funds and foundations providing for public health work, the reader is referred to the articles in Group 6, HEALTH, of TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20.

CONSULT: Rosenau, M. J.: *Preventive Medicine and Hygiene*, 1927; Sedgwick, Wm. T.: *Principles of Sanitary Science and the Public Health*, 1902; Chapin, Charles V.: *The Sources and Modes of Infection*, 1912; Ravenel, M. P. (editor): *A Half Century of Public Health*, 1921; Winslow, C.-E. A.: *The Life of Hermann M. Biggs, Physician and Statesman of Public Health*, 1929; and Jordan, Whipple, and Winslow: *A Pioneer of Public Health: William Thompson Sedgwick*, 1924.

HOMER N. CALVER

For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 594.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS. Much of the pioneer public health work of America has been done by the unofficial public health organizations. These organizations, without legal authority, supported by voluntary contributions or by industry instead of taxation, have been active in many fields. Because of their variety, the multiplicity of their functions, the large number of them, both national and local, and their frequent similarity of name, considerable confusion exists as to their identity and activities. They may, however, be grouped into six classes, as shown in the following classification:

(1) Foundations. These are trustees of trust funds established by one or more individuals as gifts or bequests. The income (and in some cases the principal) is to be expended in public health or other fields. These foundations (a) give financial support to activities carried on by other organizations, or (b) conduct specific work either alone or in partnership with others. (Examples: Rockefeller Foundation, Milbank Memorial Fund, Russell Sage Foundation, Carnegie Corporation, and Commonwealth Fund)

(2) Professional societies. These are organizations in which active membership is limited to those with professional qualifications. Usually they are organized for the improvement of members, standardization of technique, improvement of training, and so forth. (Examples: American Nurses Association, National Organization for Public Health Nursing, American Medical Association, and American Public Health Association)

(3) Popular organizations with membership open to anyone interested. This is the

type ordinarily meant by "unofficial agencies," often called lay or voluntary organizations. They are usually organized for a special purpose and in a restricted field: (a) as a vigilance committee to support and encourage particular projects, or (b) as a pioneer in experiment and research, or (c) as an agent for educational propaganda or modification of legislation. (Examples: American Social Hygiene Association, National Tuberculosis Association, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, American Society for the Control of Cancer, National Society for the Prevention of Blindness, and American Child Health Association)

(4) Secondary health organizations. This designation is here given to organizations which are primarily formed for social, educational, religious, or other purposes, but are also carrying on activities relating to public health. (Examples: Churches, Leagues of Women Voters, Women's Clubs, Young Men's Christian Associations, Young Women's Christian Associations, Universities, and so forth)

(5) Commercial organizations. These include: (a) Corporations which carry on health work among their own employes and in cases of industrial communities for the whole community (Examples: American Telephone and Telegraph Company, National Cash Register Company); (b) insurance companies which publish educational literature, films, and so forth, provide nursing service and health service to policyholders, and support demonstrations and activities of other organizations (Examples: Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, Prudential Insurance Company of America, Equitable Life Assurance Company, John Hancock Mutual Life Insurance Company); and (c) trade associations, which are composed of several industries in a specific field and which carry on popular education, research, and other activities in public health relating to their special interest. (Examples: National Dairy Council, Cleanliness Institute, Association of Soap and Glycerine Manufacturers, Chlorine Institute)

(6) Councils and conferences. These are organizations composed of representatives of official and unofficial health organizations and established as channels of communication between organizations to develop cooperation and to discuss problems of mutual interest. (Examples: Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities and the National Health Council)

The foundations, probably the most powerful group, are dealt with in another article. *See* FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK. The numerous popular organizations are nearly all engaged in specialized fields and those of most importance are mentioned in the several articles dealing with those fields. Some reference will also be found in those and other articles to the uncounted and almost uncountable number of organizations which make public health work a secondary though often important subsidiary activity. In this class, however, special note should be made of the extensive public health work of the American Red Cross.

Among the professional societies the American Public Health Association clearly dominates the field. This society, organized in 1872, includes in its active membership professional public health workers of all types in all of North America. For many years its chief concern was an annual meeting. These meetings, which have been held without an omission each year since 1872, bring together the leading public health workers from all over the world, and the published proceedings constitute a history of public health development in America. In addition to holding an annual meeting, which is the largest regular conference in America on public health, the American Public Health Association has recently inaugurated a Western Branch meeting. The Association publishes monthly the *American Journal of Public Health* and *The Nation's Health*, and from time to time special reports, such as the well-known *Standard Methods for the Examination of Water and Sewage*, *Standard Methods of Milk Analysis*, and *The Control of Communicable Diseases*. Through its

Committee on Administrative Practice, the Association regularly conducts public health surveys and appraisals of states and cities and a consultant service, and engages in special studies from time to time, such as its present three-year study of rural health work. Under the Committee on Research and Standards there are some 50 technical committees which investigate and report on a variety of public health problems. The Association has 14 affiliated state societies and on January 1, 1930, had approximately 6,000 members of all classes—which constituted it the largest professional public health organization in the world.

There are no other professional societies embracing the whole public health field, though a number of the subprofessional public health groups have organized such societies, and the societies of other professions have sections or divisions dealing with public health or some of its aspects; for example, the section on Preventive and Industrial Medicine and Public Health of the American Medical Association, and the Sanitary Engineering Division of the American Society of Civil Engineers. Some of the related professional societies are the following: National Organization for Public Health Nursing, Association of Women in Public Health, American Association of School Physicians, Society of American Bacteriologists, American Physical Education Association, and American Student Health Association.

The history of most professional societies is similar. They start as an annual conference; this leads to the development of committees for study and report on problems which concern the field or the membership. Impressed with the value of these reports and the proceedings of the conferences the society is led into some type of publication activity. When its income becomes sufficient or nearly so, a headquarters office is set up, a paid secretary engaged, and an effort made to extend the size and scope of the organization and to develop services for its members. In general the older professional societies have made distinctive contributions to the advancement of public health through the establishment of standards of training, the recruiting of new workers to the profession, the advancement of its status in society as a whole, and the advancement of knowledge, particularly through the development of technique and the promotion of the wider use of best practices. Quite generally they have so far refrained from imposing their propaganda on the public. The number of these societies is increasing, both in the national and local fields.

Few people realize the large and rapidly growing influence of the commercial organizations on public health. This influence is exercised through four channels. First comes the health work they carry on with their own employes. Considering the number and size of the organizations engaged in this endeavor, the number of people reached in the aggregate is very large. Workmen's compensation laws have been a great stimulus to the inauguration of this work, but in many concerns enlightened self-interest has prompted an extension of activities beyond accident prevention and surgical care to health education, sanitation, and real preventive medicine. Many communities in America are dominated by a single company, and the public health policy of this company has been the public health policy of the community.

A second important contribution of business to public health advancement has been the publication of educational literature, films, and other educational material. The insurance companies, particularly the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, have been the leaders in this type of activity. Most of the material has been prepared for school children, but a great deal of it has been designed for adults as well. In general this material has been superior to that prepared by the official agencies and it has had a wider distribution.

A third influence of business on public health is the public health education conveyed in its regular advertising. Although

some of this which has been developed without the benefit of public health counsel has been unsound, to say the least, a considerable amount of this material has been of great value. Unfortunately the least ethical of these advertisements have attracted the most attention.

A fourth and more recent channel of public health work under business auspices is through the medium of the trade associations. These associations, representing groups of manufacturers or producers of products related to public health, have stressed health education but have also done notable and valuable work in research and other fields. The extensive and thoroughly organized quality control work of the Philadelphia Dairy Council is an outstanding example of this type of activity. With money to spend and a definite commercial advantage to be gained, the commercial organizations both directly and through their trade associations are becoming increasingly important as unofficial health agencies.

The foregoing comments on the unofficial public health agencies are from the national point of view. All over America, however, there are small foundations confining their activities to limited areas; professional societies, including members from a limited territory; popular organizations engaged in child hygiene, public health nursing or other activities in almost every town and city; women's clubs; churches; universities with their student health programs; Red Cross chapters; and a host of other religious, social, charitable or educational institutions doing public health work of importance. Probably no attempt has ever been made to count this great array or to estimate its influence.

This picture of a host of agencies—national, state and local, official and unofficial, lay and professional, commercial and charitable—each with its separate program, staff and funds, brings to mind a vast cubistic panorama of parallel, converging and diverging lines and planes, the whole covering considerable canvas but presenting to the casual observer a picture without shape or meaning. Out of the apparent chaos has come one of the most significant of the modern health movements—the health council. These councils are composed of delegate representation from autonomous organizations both official and unofficial. They provide a channel of communication between organizations and an opportunity to develop coordination and unity of programs so that the forces may be most effectively applied. In the higher stage of their development they provide opportunity for actual unity of command. Unfortunately too little use has been made of these opportunities. Health councils have been most successful in the local fields, more so than in the state or national field. In a few states the state-wide agencies have joined to form state councils, and in 1921 the leading national associations formed the National Health Council. *See* Health Councils. Similar in their organization by delegate representation but usually differing in program are the associations of similar types of agencies, such as the Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America.

Public health work in this country is done by official and unofficial organizations. As shown in this article, there are six different types in the latter category. The number of each type is increasing. There is a slight tendency toward consolidation but this tendency is outweighed by opposite tendencies. Quite generally there is a decided trend toward conducting public health work on a scientific basis, with programs developed, directed, and operated by experts rather than on an emotional or sentimental basis under the influence of a kindly disposed but uninformed laity. It is decidedly an era of testing and standardization of work as contrasted with an earlier period in which the tendency was to undertake any task that appealed to the emotions of one influential board member or contributor regardless of need or facilities. Although prophecy is dangerous, there is evidence to believe that the next decade will see a material strengthening of the

council idea and the development even further of the scientific attitude.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

PUBLIC HEALTH, LOCAL AGENCIES. Public health work in cities of the United States on an organized basis appears to have had its beginning as early as 1678, when Boston and Salem, Mass., adopted regulations for the control of smallpox. Some historians record the establishment of a Board of Health in Petersburg, Va., in 1780, while others credit Baltimore with the first organized Board of Health, said to have been appointed in 1793. It is a well-known fact that a Board of Health was appointed in Philadelphia in 1794, in New York City in 1796, and in Boston in 1799. It was many years later, however, before definite steps were taken to develop organized county health work. The first county health unit was established in 1911 in Yakima County, Wash., as a result of the effective service rendered that area during a typhoid epidemic by trained public health workers from the United States Public Health Service.

In the early development of public health work, the functions of boards of health were confined chiefly to the enforcement of quarantine measures to prevent the spread of contagious diseases and the abatement of nuisances. The Massachusetts Health Act of 1797 prescribed the sole duty of a health officer as follows: "To remove all filth of any kind whatever which shall be found on any of the streets, lanes, wharves, docks or in any other place whatever within the limits of the town to which such committee or health officer belongs, whenever such filth shall, in their judgment, endanger the lives and the health of the inhabitants thereof." With changing concepts of health work, the functions and activities have likewise changed until, at the present time, in the majority of cities with over 30,000 population, provision is made for such services as the following: vital statistics; communicable disease control, including tuberculosis and venereal disease control; child hygiene; public health nursing; sanitation, including food and milk control; laboratory; and public health education. Some cities are beginning to take the next steps and are setting up services for cancer and heart disease control, and mental and industrial hygiene.

In the smaller cities, those under 30,000 population, and in counties or rural areas, health work has not made such rapid development, and frequently the health program includes only nursing and sanitary services with such medical service as may be provided by the health officer. Occasionally, under pressure of outstanding need and where support and leadership is available, as in Los Angeles County, Cal., there is found a well-organized county health department fully equipped to render the services usually available through a well-organized city health department.

The majority of city health departments are financed entirely by local taxation, funds being appropriated annually as a part of the city budget. In a few cities these funds are supplemented by appropriations from non-official agencies, such as the Community Chest or the local tuberculosis association. In the report of a study of all cities over 100,000 population made by the Committee on Municipal Health Department Practice of the American Public Health Association in 1920, there was brought together for the first time comparable information on city health department appropriations and expenditures. From an analysis of these data it is found that the highest per capita expenditure among this group of 83 cities was 104.9 cents, and the lowest 11.9 cents, while 44.3 cents represented the median per capita appropriation, with the average per capita for 81 cities amounting to 51.6 cents. A similar study of all cities over 70,000 population four years later indicated that for 74 cities, where comparable information on health department expenditures was avail-

able for a period of five years (1919–1923), the average per capita expenditure had increased 29 per cent. The average per capita expenditures for health conservation in all cities over 30,000 population, as reported in *Financial Statistics of Cities*, has increased from 86 cents in 1924 to $1.00 in 1927, which on the surface seems to indicate an upward trend in appropriations for health work. Few cities, if any, are as yet making adequate financial provisions for carrying the entire burden of the necessary public health work in a community. Non-official agencies are still called upon to share the burden. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS.

County health departments or units, while partly financed by local taxes, in most instances receive additional support from the state health department. Some states have adopted the policy of matching the local appropriation dollar for dollar. In New York State the law authorizes the payment of 50 per cent of the cost of full-time county health service. In 10 other states the contribution of the state to the county budget for health work ranges from 20 to 30 per cent of the total. The trend toward increasing the aid from the state is growing. In addition, a number of county health departments receive through the state department of health financial assistance from the United States Public Health Service, the Rockefeller Foundation, and the Children's Bureau of the United States Department of Labor. Of the 505 counties or districts with local health service under whole-time supervision at the beginning of 1930, 444, or 88 per cent, were receiving assistance from the state board of health, the United States Public Health Service, and the Rockefeller Foundation.

In 1929 there were slightly over 1,000 county tuberculosis associations in the United States. These organizations, together with the county chapters of the American Red Cross, local nursing organizations and the like, coordinate in providing public health services in rural communities.

For a number of years continued emphasis has been placed upon the importance of employing full-time health officers. In 1920, in cities over 100,000 population, 53, or 63.9 per cent, of the health officers were on full-time. Of the 100 cities of over 70,000 population in 1923, 63 per cent employed full-time directors, while for the same year 56.4 per cent of the 86 cities of from 40,000 to 70,000 population employed full-time health officers. Replies received from 228 cities of over 10,000 population in 1927 indicated that in 128 of these cities, or 56 per cent, full-time health officers were employed. In 1925 there were 280 counties in the United States operated under the supervision of full-time health officers. By January 1, 1930, this number had increased to 505. Within the period January 1, 1929, to January 1, 1930, there was a net gain of 38.

There is a wide variation in the extent to which child hygiene activities have been developed by local public health agencies. At one extreme, usually in the larger cities, there is found a bureau or division of child hygiene with a full-time director, assisted by medical and nursing personnel; while in the smaller cities, with smaller groups to be handled or with limited financial support for official services, such activities frequently are provided entirely by non-official agencies, such as the local visiting nurse association. In rural areas child hygiene activities are usually confined to the service rendered by nursing staffs. *See* CHILD HYGIENE.

The importance of public health nursing service in the development of a community health program is being increasingly recognized. Although most communities make some provision for this activity, either through official or non-official agencies, few have used this service as fully and effectively as is possible. For some time a standard of one public health nurse for each 2,000 of the population has been considered the desirable goal. It is recognized, however, that there is wide variation in the problems confronting different communities, and the need in each field of service should be considered rather

than any arbitrary standard. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING.

A more intelligent and health conscious public is demanding health literature and health information that is both instructive and interesting. As a result bureaus or divisions of health education have been established within the health department in a number of cities, under a full-time chief and with adequate funds to promote a systematic health education program. This functions both to sell public health to the community in order to gain support for the work of the department and to develop a personal appreciation of individual health. In the smaller cities, however, health education is more often a function of the bureau of administration with no special funds set aside for this important activity. The same is true in county health departments, which are dependent for the most part on health education material provided by state, federal, and voluntary agencies. *See* HEALTH EDUCATION, POPULAR.

Although activities for the prevention and treatment of tuberculosis in a few cities are still provided entirely through non-official agencies, the trend seems to be for the health department gradually to accept the major responsibility for tuberculosis services. In the rural areas, however, because of lack of funds and limited personnel, county health departments still look to the voluntary agencies and the state health department for assistance in tuberculosis prevention and control. Diagnostic clinics, home nursing service, and institutional care are the tuberculosis control activities common to most health departments. Open-air schoolrooms, summer camps, special preventorium facilities, and a rehabilitation program are provided in some of the more progressive cities. The tuberculosis program of county health departments, except in a few unusually well-organized areas, such as Cattaraugus County, N. Y., Los Angeles County, Cal., and others, is generally limited to nursing and hospital care, supplemented in some states by occasional diagnostic clinic sessions under the auspices of the state health department staff. *See* TUBERCULOSIS.

Effective service for venereal disease control depends primarily upon reporting of cases, and in cities and counties where, by legal requirement, cases are reported directly to the health officer, the foundation is laid for developing activities designed to meet the problem. Venereal disease incidence studies, frequently made by the United States Public Health Service and the American Social Hygiene Association at the request of local health officers, contribute helpful information on the extent of the venereal disease problem and form the background for further expanding or limiting of the services. The activities of city health departments are frequently limited to providing arsenicals for treatment and free clinical and nursing service. Some cities maintain a well-organized social service follow-up for venereal disease cases, which greatly enhances the value and effectiveness of clinic service. A well-rounded program of control should combine with its medical, nursing, and social activities the promotion of suitable recreation for all age groups, and educational services designed to attack the problems, both directly and indirectly. Only meager information is available on the extent of venereal disease programs in county health departments. A few counties provide clinical and nursing service; others depend upon the activities of the United States Public Health Service, the state health department, and non-official agencies; and still others, while frankly recognizing the problem, have included no services relating to it in the health department program. *See* VENEREAL DISEASES.

Perhaps no one other activity in recent years has aroused such widespread interest or has been the inspiration for such quantities of unique and original health education campaigns as has the program for diphtheria prevention. Almost every city and county health department has developed its own particular method of carrying on a diph-

theria prevention campaign. Practically all health departments distribute free toxin-antitoxin for immunization purposes. In Toledo, Detroit, and some other cities, however, the health department has abandoned the diphtheria immunization program, leaving the work entirely to private physicians. *See* DIPHTHERIA PREVENTION.

As the functions of the health department have changed with changing conditions, the relationships to non-official agencies and the private practice of medicine have also changed markedly. Beginning with a function which was primarily an exercise of police power little concerned with the administration of treatment and even the diagnosis of disease, the official health department has taken over certain phases of organized service well demonstrated for limited areas or groups by voluntary agencies. After the city-wide application of these services has been shown, or their application to a particular population group, they are gradually being turned back, in certain progressive communities, to be carried entirely by physicians in their private practice, with the exercise of sufficient control by the official agency to see that the service is well done and adequate in extent.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year rural health service was extended by the establishment of 38 additional county health units, increasing the number of full-time county health units to 505 as of January 1, 1930. The International Health Division of the Rockefeller Foundation gave financial assistance to 194 of these units in 1929. The United States Public Health Service cooperated in demonstration projects in 198 counties in the fiscal year 1929; the majority of these were located in the flood area of the Mississippi.

At the close of the year the Marion County, Ore., Child Health Demonstration, financed for five years by the Commonwealth Fund, came to an end. The county health department, however, with the cooperation and assistance of local agencies, will carry out the health program as worked out jointly while the Demonstration was functioning.

Due to the impressive increase in the death rate from cancer and heart disease, health department programs were expanded during the year to include services for these diseases. A cardiac consulting service in connection with the city maternity service was established in Los Angeles, Cal., while in St. Louis, Mo., the health department established cancer clinics in all municipal health centers. A heart specialist was employed by the New York City Health Department as consultant for all heart work.

While it is probably impossible to point to any one significant change in 1929 in policy or methods of health departments as a whole, there was apparently an increasing desire on the part of health officers to obtain a true evaluation of their departmental activities. Health inventories, health surveys, and appraisals were made in numerous cities. Among the studies of unusual interest completed were the Health Inventory of New York City, the Health and Hospital Survey of Philadelphia, and the Health Survey of Honolulu.

A study of rural health organization throughout the country, begun in 1928 by the Committee on Administrative Practice of the American Public Health Association, was continued during 1929. This study represents the first real attempt to bring together data on county health department organization and services. It is expected that the survey will provide accurate information which may be used in working out a fundamentally sound and practical program for county health departments. The final report of this survey will probably not be published before 1931, though a preliminary draft of the findings will doubtless be available by the close of 1930.

Growing out of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, a special subcommittee was appointed during the year to collect facts on health department organization. The report of this subcommittee will be available in the fall of 1930.

Very definite steps were taken in June, 1929, through the Inter-Chamber Health Conservation Contest, under the auspices of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States and cooperating health agencies, to actively interest local business groups in public health work. It is too early to ascertain the exact effect this project will have upon the work of health departments. It seems highly probable that when business groups fully recognize the economic value of the work of the health department in the community, increased financial support will be forthcoming and there will be built up within the community a better spirit of cooperation because of a more thorough understanding of the health problems and need, which will also result in better coordination and support of all health service.

Legislation, 1929. New York (Ch. 373) modified the general powers and duties of health officers; and (Ch. 376) of local health officers; and also (Ch. 371) the law relating to county health districts. New Mexico (Ch. 70) established a "health protection fund" to assist counties in establishing and maintaining improved health service, to match such gifts as may be made by the federal government, public or private organizations, or individuals for the same purpose, and to serve as a depository for the receipt and disbursement of such gifts, bequests, and so forth, when desired. Kansas (Ch. 289) authorized counties of a specified class to levy a special tax, the proceeds of which are to be designated as the "County Health Fund." An act was passed in Iowa (Ch. 65) authorizing counties to adopt the county unit plan for public health work to coordinate and correlate all their public health activities and to create a county board of health.

CONSULT: American Public Health Association: *Report of the Committee on Municipal Health Department Practice* (Public Health Bulletin No. 136), 1923, and *Municipal Health Department Practice for the Year 1923* (Public Health Bulletin No. 164), 1923; Lumsden, L. L.: "Extent of Rural Health Service in the United States," in *Public Health Reports*, May 17, 1929; Research Division of the American Child Health Association: *A Health Survey of 86 Cities*, 1925; Davis and Jarrett: *A Health Inventory of New York City*, 1929; American Public Health Association: *Community Health Organization*, 1927; Mustard and Mountin: "Measurements of Efficiency and Adequacy of Rural Health Service," in *American Journal of Public Health*, August, 1929; Emerson, Haven (editor): *Prevention of Disease—Public Health* (Vols. I and II, Nelson Loose Leaf Living Medicine Series), 1928; Ravenel, M. P.: *A Half Century of Public Health*, 1921; Bureau of the Census: *Financial Statistics of Cities, 1924 and 1927;* United States Public Health Service: *Health Departments of States and Provinces of the United States and Canada* (Public Health Bulletin No. 184), 1929; Sippy, John J.: "Demonstrating Dentistry in the Schools as Part of a Public Health Program," in *The American City*, December, 1929; and Insurance Department, Chamber of Commerce of the United States: "Announcement of Inter-Chamber Health Conservation Contest," in its *Health Bulletin No. 8*, June, 1929.

W. F. WALKER
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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING is an organized community service, not for profit, rendered by graduate nurses to the individual, family, and community. This service includes the interpretation and application of medical, sanitary, and social procedures for the correction of defects, the prevention of disease and the promotion of health, and may include skilled care of the sick in their homes. Public health nursing may be administered by official or non-official agencies, or by both jointly. The usual nursing service rendered may be classified, according to the nature of the problems presented, as health supervision, maternity, or morbidity service, or it may be classified according to the special groups reached in the community, such as school nursing or industrial nursing service. The nursing care may be given during visits to the individual under care;

during visits of the individual to a conference or a clinic; through visits made in behalf of an individual; and through group instruction in classes, clubs, and meetings. In addition agencies may carry on from time to time special activities in the public health field which are not a part of any continuous program.

History and Present Status. Modern public health nursing had its beginnings in the district nursing carried on by an organization of deaconesses in Germany during the early part of the nineteenth century. Its first definitely professional development came in 1859 when William Rathbone of Liverpool, with the help of Florence Nightingale, founded the first district nursing association. In the United States the first trained nurses for home visiting were employed by the Woman's Branch of the New York City Mission in 1877. For about ten years visiting nurses were employed by various groups, but their duties were largely limited to giving bedside care to the sick poor in their own homes. Not until 1886 did the idea that the nurse might also be a teacher of health win open recognition. In that year nursing associations were organized in Boston and in Philadelphia, which definitely planned to utilize the nurse's call at the home as an opportunity for giving health instruction to the patient and members of the family. The number of nursing organizations with similar aims increased steadily but rather slowly until the lessons taught by the World War and by the influenza epidemic of 1918 combined to bring home forcibly to the American public the value of the public health nurse in the local community and the necessity of making her visits more universally available. During the years immediately after 1900 there was also rapid development in the field of specialized public health organization, and the new agencies—anti-tuberculosis associations, organizations for the prevention of infant mortality, and similar groups—seized upon the public health nurse as the best person to introduce preventive measures into the home. Later, the post-war program of the American Red Cross did much to extend public health nursing services to small towns and rural areas, as did also the developments made possible under the Sheppard-Towner Act. The nursing programs promoted by certain insurance companies, and the health services installed by many industrial concerns, have been further sources of stimulus to developments in this field. The National Organization for Public Health Nursing was established in 1912 to promote and develop public health nursing through cooperative relationships with other national health and social agencies and by other means.

The present trend in nursing organization is toward a generalized rather than a specialized program, with the tendency toward but one public health nursing association in any given community, and but one nurse to carry the responsibility for health services in any given family, no matter what the presenting problem may be. Specialized supervisors are, however, often added to a general staff to act as consultants and to insure the adequate development of special aspects of the service. Another tendency is toward the development of joint programs in which both public and private agencies unite. Nursing has long since ceased to be thought of as a "charity"; it is now regarded as a community activity conducting services available for all groups, whose support comes from the community either through taxes, payment by patients, or by such contracting parties as insurance companies and industries, or through contributions from individuals or community chests.

When fees are charged by public health nursing agencies, the general practice is to base the amount on a careful reckoning of the actual cost per visit. Necessarily, therefore, the amount of the fee differs in different localities, and ranges from 75 cents to $1.50 a visit, the patient paying as much as he is able. In addition to this pay service some visiting nurse associations—46, all told, in 1927—have organized an hourly ap-

pointment service for those who wish a nurse at a given time. As this service is more expensive to administer, the charge usually ranges from $1.50 to $2.00 an hour.

Public health nursing is necessarily a cooperative undertaking conducted in close relationship to the medical profession, social workers, teachers, hospitals, and other institutions. Boards and committees of public health nursing agencies are important factors in the development of this program. Naturally, the public health nursing field reflects certain trends which are found in these other fields of work with which it is so closely associated. For example, the present emphasis on nutrition and mental hygiene has resulted in the adding of nutrition and mental hygiene supervisors to many public health nursing staffs.

A census of public health nursing in the United States—which did not include hospital social service, dispensary, or industrial nursing—was taken by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing in 1924. There were in all 3,269 agencies which employed a total of 11,171 full-time graduate nurses. About one-half of these agencies, employing more than one-half of the nurses, were official branches of the federal, state, county, or municipal governments. Among the private agencies listed were 398 public health nursing associations or similar organizations which employed 2,516 nurses; 473 local clinics and branches of the American Red Cross which employed 574 nurses; 128 tuberculosis associations which employed 227 nurses; 103 public health associations which employed 125 nurses; and 424 other non-official agencies which employed 1,194 nurses. Of the 3,045 counties in the United States, 866 had local nursing service available in 1924 for the entire area, and 379 for part of the area, leaving 1,800 totally unprovided for.

While these are the latest authoritative figures, less extensive studies of more recent date make it possible to estimate that at present there are approximately 20,000 public health nurses engaged in all the various branches of the work. Among these studies was one made in 1929 by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing which showed 2,022 nurses employed by commercial and industrial establishments. Since it proved impossible to get complete returns, it is estimated that there are probably between 1,000 and 2,000 additional nurses so employed.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. To be eligible for membership in the National Organization for Public Health Nursing an applicant must have graduated from a training school for nurses connected with a general hospital having a daily average of 30 patients or more, this training to be obtained in one or more hospitals over a period of not less than two years. Training shall include practical experience in caring for men, women, and children, together with theoretical and practical instruction in medical, surgical, obstetrical, and pediatric nursing. In states where nurse practice laws have been enacted, registration is an additional requirement. In addition to these membership requirements which relate to the basic professional preparation of the public health nurse there are certain additional standards for public health nursing positions which have been developed by the National Organization for Public Health Nursing and are now generally accepted. These are high school graduation, or its equivalent; and for the nurse working alone or in a supervisory capacity, one year's experience on the staff of a recognized public health nursing agency working under adequate supervision, or a post-graduate course in public health nursing of one academic year, or preferably both. For nurses in executive positions it is considered desirable to have had experience as a staff nurse under supervision, a post-graduate course in public health nursing, and experience in a supervisory capacity if possible.

The National Organization for Public Health Nursing, while it does not act as an accrediting agency, assists in maintaining

standards by its own membership requirements and by its endorsement of certain post-graduate courses in public health nursing which meet the standards set up by the organization's committee on education. Eleven such post-graduate courses have been endorsed, and two more courses which were organized during 1929 will undoubtedly receive endorsement. Of 301 official and non-official agencies in 39 states which are corporate members of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, 67.1 have a 100 per cent rating—that is, all the nurses employed are eligible for individual membership; while 82.3 have staffs with a 90 per cent rating. Fourteen states make specific requirements for the licensing of all nurses which would make any nurse they permit to register eligible to membership, and 13 states have legislative requirements which are in advance of the minimum educational standard set by the national organization. In all the educational courses which fit for public health nursing, emphasis is laid on the case work approach and the relationship between nursing and case-working agencies. Courses ordinarily require a minimum of four weeks' field work with case-working agencies.

Developments and Events, 1929. For the most part the year witnessed mainly an extension of the trends already noted. An increasing number of public health nursing agencies adopted the requirement of high school graduation for staff members. Staff educational programs were more generally adopted and several agencies established scholarships to enable staff members to take post-graduate courses. Two new post-graduate courses were organized, although only one of these began taking students during the year. There had been an increase of 358 in the total number of students registering in the post-graduate courses, 257 of whom were full-time students. Not only were efforts made to educate nurses on the staff but also institutes were given for board members. In counties additional advisory committees have been organized, and in at least one city a committee of this sort was appointed to work with the Division of Public Health Nursing of the Department of Health. During the year the national organization added to its staff a secretary for the Section on Board and Committee Members.

The most serious setback of the year was the discontinuance of special nursing services in rural communities due to the expiration of the federal appropriations under the Sheppard-Towner Act. (*See* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE.) Otherwise there was an appreciable extension of nursing service. An hourly appointment service for patients in more comfortable circumstances was added by some visiting nurse associations. School nursing in some cities was extended to parochial schools and also to high schools. A few more visiting nurse associations added a service at time of confinement. More attention was paid to fathers, several nursing agencies definitely developing a program to reach this group. Programs for the care and prevention of communicable diseases were extended. At least one more agency incorporated an orthopedic nursing program in its service; one visiting nurse association included follow-up work on cancer cases, and another added a social hygiene supervisor. Supervisors were also added in the fields of tuberculosis, mental hygiene, and nutrition.

During the year the American Social Hygiene Association and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing entered upon a joint project to study and assist in ways in which the public health nurse can contribute to the social hygiene program, and a public health nurse with wide experience in this field was added to the staff of the latter organization. In cooperation with the National Tuberculosis Association, a member of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing staff devoted a large part of her time to the field of industrial nursing. The Maternity Center Association is conducting institutes for public health nursing groups throughout the country, and the National Society for the Prevention of Blind-

ness continues to send a public health nurse into the field and demonstrate group vision testing with the result that many more school nursing groups are including this as part of their work.

There was evidence during the year of a closer relationship between private and public agencies in the nursing field. There has been a definite extension of the principle of payment from public funds to a privately supported public health nursing agency, in order to carry out a program which was a proper charge upon the taxes of the community. In certain other communities public and private services were combined under joint administration. Several local groups adopted the plan of a generalized public health nursing service within one agency or the combination of several agencies to develop a completely generalized community service. The organization of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, and the studies which it plans to make, will have direct bearing on the public health nursing field which is represented on many of its committees. The outstanding benefactions of the year in this field were the Children's Fund of Michigan, the Hubert Legacy of New York City, and gifts made by the Julius Rosenwald Fund for the provision of Negro public health nurses in the South.

During the year the National Organization for Public Health Nursing made a salary study and a study of industrial nursing, and began the preparation of a study of the cost of a nursing visit, a handbook on public health nursing statistics, and a board member's manual. The Rosenwald Fund, with the help of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, inaugurated a study of Negro public health nursing, and several local community health studies which included public health nursing were made by the American Public Health Association and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing cooperatively and separately.

Legislation, 1929. Maine (Ch. 102), Connecticut (Ch. 39), and the District of Columbia (Public No. 966, 70th Congress) enacted nurse registration laws. These affect the public health nursing field in those states since registration is practically a universal requirement for employment. California (Ch. 199) enacted a law permitting counties to employ public health nurses, and Iowa unsuccessfully attempted to pass an amendment to Ch. 112, Code of Iowa, 1927, which would have made the employment of public health nurses mandatory upon the counties. New Mexico (Ch. 55) allowed the county health officer to employ additional personnel on approval of the state director of public health and (Ch. 70) created a Health Protection Fund which allows for state subsidy of county health work under certain conditions.

CONSULT: Gardner, Mary S.: *Public Health Nursing*, 1924; National Organization for Public Health Nursing: *Manual of Public Health Nursing*, 1926; American Red Cross: *Handbook of Information on Public Health Nursing*, 1927; National Organization for Public Health Nursing: "Definition of Nursing Service," in *Public Health Nurse Magazine*, October, 1929; American Public Health Association: "Standardizing Qualifications for Public Health Nursing Positions," in *Public Health Nurse Magazine*, June, 1925; and Fox, Elizabeth G.: "Advisory Committees for Official Public Health Nursing," in *Public Health Nurse Magazine*, December, 1927.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

PUBLIC HEALTH, STATE AGENCIES. All 48 states have made provision for public health service. In several states, as in Nevada, Arizona, and Wyoming, a mere beginning has been made, whereas in Pennsylvania, New York, and Massachusetts more than a million dollars of state funds are being spent yearly, exclusive of expenditures by local authorities. Massachusetts, in 1869, was the first state to organize its health service. Before the end of the century 39 others had established official state bodies.

The plan of organization varies, seven states having public health councils whose duties are advisory, and 34 having boards which exercise supervisory powers, while three states—Idaho, Nebraska, and Oklahoma—have neither advisory councils nor state boards of health.

The eligibility requirements for membership on the state boards or councils vary. In Alabama the state medical society, from its members, names the board. In South Carolina the board is composed of seven physicians elected by the state medical society and three ex officio members, while in North Carolina there are nine members, four elected by the state medical society and five appointed by the governor. In at least 40 states the board members are appointed by the governors. The terms of service range from two to seven years, four- or six-year periods being customary.

Health appropriations in each state are made by the legislature to the state board or department of health. The amount depends upon conditions of wealth, population, educational advancement, and interest in public health and whether or not there is a centralized or decentralized state service. The average per capita appropriation in the 48 states in 1925 was nine cents. In Delaware, where the state finances both central and local work, the amount was 30.8 cents.

The state health officer's title—commissioner, secretary, director, and so forth—and his eligibility requirements vary. In 39 states he must be a legally qualified physician. The selection of the state health officer rests with the state board of health in 21 states, in 24 with the governor, and in 26 states he is or becomes a member of the state board. With the exception of Arizona, all states now claim to have their health officers serving on a full-time basis. The compensation scale ranges from $2,500 in Nevada to $12,000 in New York, the average being from $5,000 to $6,000.

Administrative Divisions. The work of the state health departments is generally divided among divisions or bureaus. Divisions for communicable diseases, vital statistics, diagnostic laboratory, and sanitary engineering are found in practically all states, and in most of the large state agencies there are other divisions, including one or more of the following: child hygiene, public health nursing, public health education, food and drugs, industrial hygiene, mental hygiene, registration of physicians and nurses, and so forth.

(1) Divisions of Communicable Diseases. It was around agencies to combat communicable diseases that the state and federal health services were originally established. Epidemics occurred from time to time, but only in comparatively recent years has the available knowledge been complete enough to guide the authorities in control measures. In 1915 only 10 states had divisions of communicable diseases. By 1924 the number had increased to 36. These divisions endeavor to obtain prompt reporting of sickness or death from communicable diseases. They have charge of enforcement of quarantine or aid the local health officials in the task. The scope of the work varies in different states. Frequently clinics are held for immunization against smallpox, diphtheria, typhoid fever, and so forth. About 15 states include in this branch of work epidemiological field studies. Measures against tuberculosis and venereal diseases are conducted in several states as subdivisions of this division, whereas in 25 states there are separate divisions for venereal diseases, and 14 have divisions specifically for tuberculosis. The administration of state tuberculosis hospitals is the responsibility of the state health departments in 10 states, and in 24 it is vested in other boards or commissions. Strengthening the divisions of communicable diseases with respect to more complete reporting of cases of sickness, more thorough epidemiological studies of diseases, and better control methods is the objective at present in this branch of service.

(2) Vital Statistics. Collecting the birth and death certificates is the bookkeeping of

public health. A federal registration area was formed for deaths in 1880 and for births in 1915. Admission of states to these areas is conditional upon 90 per cent complete reporting. The number of states admitted has steadily increased so that before the close of 1929 all except Texas and South Dakota were included. Fees of 25 to 50 cents for each birth and death certificate recorded are paid to the local registrars, usually by the county or local government. State responsibility for handling these vital statistics rests with the state boards of health except in Massachusetts, where the secretary of state still has charge, as formerly was the case in several other states. The certificates of birth and death are usually reported by the attending physician. Now that the registration area includes practically the entire country, the trend is to strengthen the personnel to the end that the statistical data will be thoroughly analyzed and the results made available, particularly to the executives as aids to them in formulating legislative and administrative programs. *See* VITAL AND HEALTH STATISTICS.

(3) State Health Laboratories. State health laboratories have been developed gradually since 1890, when the first one was established by the state of Minnesota for making smallpox vaccine. Forty-seven states to date—all except Wyoming—have made provision for this service, the main function of which is the diagnosis of communicable diseases. The scope of the work, however, has grown to include bacteriological and chemical examinations, examinations of water supplies, sewage and milk, the manufacture of biologicals, and other activities. In most states the laboratory constitutes a distinct division of the department and usually is housed along with the other bureaus, but in a few states the work is conducted by or in conjunction with the state university or other state institution. Twenty-three state laboratories report efforts in research, while 19 have undertaken no special work. With the exception of four or five state laboratories, the funds and personnel are too limited to allow for much research.

(4) Division of Sanitary Engineering. The safe water supplies which have been provided in cities and towns are largely due to the efforts of sanitary engineers. Only five of the 48 states have not yet made provision for this type of service. The work has contributed to the virtual elimination of typhoid fever and other enteric diseases in many sections of the country. The sanitary disposal of sewage is, of course, a part of this branch of service, which also has charge of activities pertaining to bottled water, the ice industry, various types of camping grounds, swimming pools, and roadside water supplies. In certain states it supervises inspection of dairies and milk products. The summer camp development has created special health problems. In Maine the inspection and rating of camps have been systematized and the movement is receiving increasing consideration elsewhere. With the growth of tourist and vacation travel the sanitary engineer, who functions generally in the field of environmental sanitation, has become a basic pillar in the public health structure.

(5) Child Hygiene. Special divisions of child hygiene have, in the main, been developments of the past 15 years. Prior to 1915 only a few states and cities had developed this branch of service. Voluntary health agencies and the federal Sheppard-Towner appropriation for maternity and infancy welfare work hastened the movement. For the work done by these departments *see* CHILD HYGIENE and MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE.

(6) Public Health Nursing. Eight state health departments have separate divisions of public health nursing, 11 combine the work with child hygiene or with maternity and infancy divisions, and 24 include the work under divisions of child hygiene. A supervisory nurse is in charge in 25 states, and a director of child hygiene or of maternity and infancy heads the work in 13. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING and NURSING EDUCATION.

(7) Public Health Education. The methods of conducting public health education activities vary widely. In 17 states there are separate divisions or bureaus, and in 22 states the work is handled by the central administration division. The range of activities includes regular press service, syndicated articles, bulletins, regular and special, graphic matter, posters, special exhibits, including films, slides, and so forth. *See* Health Education, Popular.

(8) Food and Drugs. The enforcement of food and drug laws is entrusted in 21 states to the department of agriculture, and in 19 states to the health departments, in 12 of which there are separate bureaus created. The procedure varies in other states, and in those where the state health department is responsible the scope and type of work are not uniform. Seven health departments have special food and drug laboratories (California, Indiana, Kansas, Louisiana, Massachusetts, Montana, and Texas) and New Jersey operates a laboratory boat for oyster investigations. The service offered by the laboratories includes examination of food for adulteration, inspection of food offered by hotels and restaurants, bakeries, dairies, meat dealers, and so forth. In eight states the medical examination of food handlers is required. Responsibility for the quality of milk may rest with state health or agriculture departments, or with local health authorities. In some cases the responsibility is divided. The food and drug divisions usually examine drugs also. The available data regarding the enforcement of narcotic laws are limited. The federal government prosecutes many cases. Pennsylvania alone has in its health department a separate bureau of narcotic drug control. *See* Drug Addiction.

(9) Industrial Hygiene. The only two state health departments reporting divisions of industrial hygiene in 1925 were Ohio and Mississippi. More recently Illinois appointed a full-time director in this field. Industry itself is rapidly developing service in hygiene and public health for its employes.

(10) Mental Hygiene. Georgia and Connecticut have established divisions of mental hygiene in their state health departments. Many states have hospitals for the insane and for epileptics and schools for the feebleminded, but with the exception of Georgia these hospitals and schools are not under the administration of the departments of health. *See* Mental Hygiene, Mental Diseases, and Mental Deficiency.

(11) Local Health Services. Local health service in the principal cities antedates that for most states. Although many city health organizations are highly developed, they are restricted as to area served, and in the development of state-wide health service the county, township, or district embracing more than one county or township rather than the city, serves as the territorial unit. Where the township, as in New England, is the local unit of government, the state usually does more local work than where the county is the unit of government and is strongly organized. During the past 15 years a movement for full-time county health organizations has gained headway. The full-time local organizations permit intensive activities, and at the same time a degree of decentralization of state responsibility and expenditures. The trend of the past decade has been toward this decentralization and cooperation, as witnessed by developments in Ohio, New York, Michigan, and California. *See* Public Health, Local Agencies.

The relationship between state and local services varies widely. Usually, if the local health organization, whether city, county, or township, fails to function, particularly during an emergency, the state health officer may assume charge of the situation, do what to him seems necessary, and require the local government to pay the cost. In general, although there are exceptions, the state's responsibility for supervising or directing city health work is slight. Its responsibility usually is somewhat greater with reference to the county or township. Likewise when a full-time professionally trained staff can be employed, whether by county or municipal-

ity, the necessity for using state personnel, except in an advisory capacity, is diminished to a large extent. In a growing number of states where this situation has developed the state departments are cooperating with the county governments upon a partnership basis in maintaining full-time well-rounded organizations. For fuller discussion of this phase of the subject *see Bulletin No. 184* of the United States Public Health Service, listed at the close of this article.

Developments and Events, 1929. Much of the legislation of the year and many of the events reported in other topical articles listed on page 20 in the group on Health affect the powers and duties of state health departments directly or indirectly. Among the events not elsewhere reported are the following, with chapter number for such as were acts of legislatures: Laws in Arkansas (Ch. 301) and Iowa (Ch. 69) authorizing their state health departments to accept aid from the federal government, and in the case of Arkansas from volunteer agencies; also, the addition of a dentist to the State Board of Health in Delaware (Ch. 99), and of an inspector to enforce the medical practice act in Iowa (Ch. 64); and the authorization of educational publicity in the field of public health in Massachusetts (Ch. 161). Connecticut (Ch. 238) gave the State Board of Health authority to detain persons affected with communicable diseases, and strengthened its law requiring the reporting of such diseases (Ch. 432). In Florida the right to appoint the state health officer was taken from the Board of Health and given to the Governor (Ch. 14,555).

CONSULT: Kerr and Moll: *Organization, Powers, and Duties of Health Authorities* (Bulletin No. 54 of the United States Public Health Service), 1912; Chapin, C. V.: *Reports of State Public Health Work Based on a Survey of State Boards of Health* (American Medical Association), 1915; Ferrell, Smillie, Covington, and Mead: *Health Departments of States and Provinces of the United States and Canada* (Bulletin No. 184 of the United States Public Health Service), 1929; Conference of State and Provincial Health Officers of North America: *Annual Transactions;* and issues of the following periodicals: *Journal of the American Medical Association; Public Health Nurse;* and *American Journal of Public Health.*

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

PUBLIC OUTDOOR RELIEF. *See* PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES.

PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES. For the agencies and officials in charge of public welfare work in counties, municipalities, and other local areas many different names are used. These vary from state to state and among counties and municipalities in the same state. The most usual names are county commissioners; overseers or superintendents of the poor; boards or departments of charities and corrections; boards or departments of public welfare or social welfare; and superintendents, directors, or commissioners of public welfare or social welfare. In addition to these comprehensive agencies, with the functions of which this article deals, there are many local public agencies, activities, or institutions of a more specialized character which are described elsewhere in this volume. *See* PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES; MOTHERS' AID; COUNTY AND CITY HOMES; HOMELESS PERSONS; DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN; DELINQUENT CHILDREN, INSTITUTION CARE; JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION; also other related activities, as shown in TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED (page 19).

History and Present Status. America in the seventeenth century already had outdoor poor relief, boarding of paupers, binding out of children, and almshouse care. As organized in New England and a few other states on the town or township basis such work was almost exclusively in the hands of town officials, but as local administration in the central, southern, and western states

was usually on the county basis, the care of the poor in most parts of the country came to be a county function. As cities were set off from counties or townships, boards or departments were created to care for public charities in the municipal areas. Almshouses were at first a dumping ground for idiots and imbeciles, the insane, epileptic, alcoholic, tubercular, deaf, dumb, blind, and crippled, and for dependent and neglected children. In recent years, in the more progressive states, municipal or county institutions or agencies have been created for some of these different groups; and for others—such as the insane, the deaf, and the blind—state institutions have replaced those of the county or city. Social case work standards have also been adopted to a limited but increasing extent by public agencies which deal with both adults and children.

The State Charities Aid Association of New York, a private agency organized in 1872 and a pioneer in the field of county welfare service, undoubtedly did much to blaze the trail for later governmental as well as private activities in New York State and elsewhere. The Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, active since 1912, has also been of service in this field, likewise the Monmouth County (N. J.) Organization for Social Work, established also in 1912, and affording a valuable demonstration. Following these early efforts came the launching of the county organization plan in North Carolina, which got its inspiration from Missouri, a state which had previously tried to set up county public welfare service by legislative enactment. North Carolina passed its county welfare organization law in 1917, and later secured assistance from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Fund to conduct a special four-county demonstration, extending over a period of three years in two urban and two rural communities.

The term "Social Welfare" or "Public Welfare," as a substitute for "Charities and Correction," appeared first in Kansas City, Mo., in 1910. This change in the name has spread to other municipalities, and in 1913 it was first applied to a county in the combined City and County Board of Public Welfare of St. Joseph, Mo. Variation from state to state and from city to city in the organization of municipal welfare work is a conspicuous and not wholly undesirable feature. Changes and experiments are in progress not only in urban welfare work but in city government generally—as, for example, in the development of the city manager plan in a growing number of communities. But it is an unfortunate fact that in many cities administration is hampered by politics, inadequate appropriations, and the lack of public understanding, although in others efficiently administered departments are being developed rapidly. The situation in the particulars mentioned is not very different in county organization except that non-urban counties and sections of counties have usually been slower to advance and have set up fewer subdivisions of their work. Undifferentiated case work is more widespread in counties than specialized service.

Since the pioneering step of North Carolina in the passage in 1917 of its state-wide county organization law, other states have adopted more or less similar plans. For example, county organization has progressed in Virginia according to a state-wide program, with local boards and superintendents of public welfare. Missouri has provision for county superintendents but not boards. California reports a considerable number of counties organized with county welfare departments and full-time trained welfare agents. The Florida law of 1927, creating the State Board of Public Welfare, gave it the task of encouraging and assisting in development of welfare work on a county-wide basis. In 1929 the Florida Commissioner reported that 10 counties had organized welfare work, partly if not wholly financed by the county. Georgia has adopted a policy of urging the counties to employ trained workers but allowing the form and manner of support of the county organization to vary, some counties having

the work publicly financed and administered, some privately, some having a combination of the two, and some changing as desired from private to public auspices, and vice versa. New York, which previously had only county child welfare boards, has recently made provision for local district public welfare organization. Pennsylvania has councils of social agencies in some counties, welfare federations in others, and welfare boards in still others.

As indicated to some extent by these examples, there has been no uniformity in the type of organization developed, and also none in the scope of the services undertaken. In some states a county welfare body is mandatory for all counties, as in Virginia, or for those of a certain population, as in North Carolina; in others it is optional, as in Pennsylvania. Other variations affect the relations of public welfare agencies to the private agencies of their communities; to the methods by which welfare boards and officials are appointed, and to their relations to the state welfare board or department. For instance, in one state the county welfare agencies are charged with the duty of keeping informed regarding all charitable institutions in their counties, and have full right to inspect. In a next-door-neighbor state the official local public welfare group has no such powers or duties except in so far as the state board may request. In some states the local boards are appointed by the state board, in others by local agencies or officials such as the circuit court, county court, or juvenile judge; some states have ex officio members on their county boards; some do not; some have large independent powers; others act more as delegates or representatives of the state body.

In certain states county organization for public welfare has been limited to a single field—that of child welfare. States where this is true include Alabama, Arizona, Arkansas, Indiana, Michigan, Minnesota, North Dakota, Ohio, and South Dakota. The present trend seems to be toward county public welfare service rather than merely child welfare service. Some states which have had a specifically child welfare program in counties, and still nominally have such a program, report that they find their child-helping activities tend to include the entire welfare field, since the children cannot be isolated and treated apart from their family and community setting.

For the sake of more efficient administration some states which have the county system are today breaking away from the limitations of county boundaries. In Virginia, for example, county almshouses have been reduced from 96 to 32 within 20 years through the establishment of district homes, chiefly by groups of counties, or of counties and cities in cooperation, or following the decision of certain counties to board their indigents in homes operated by nearby cities. Combinations of counties and cities have also been effected for the employment of superintendents of public welfare. In order to make possible the employment of trained workers the Florida Commissioner of Public Welfare is recommending that the funds and efforts of counties with small population and wealth be combined.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Through the encouragement and stimulation of state welfare departments the desirability of social case work training for local staff members is being recognized increasingly, and such training is more and more being made a required qualification. Arrangements for short term "institutes" have been made between state departments and state educational institutions and conferences of social work, and local welfare officials are encouraged and in some cases required to attend. Competitive examinations for workers, first developed in the fields of child welfare and probation, are now being extended somewhat to local positions in the general public welfare field. Progress is hampered, however, by the difficulty of obtaining trained workers and of holding them for service in small towns and rural areas.

Developments and Events, 1929. Reports from California, Florida, Georgia, Kentucky, Minnesota, Missouri, North Carolina, and Virginia show additional counties or cities organized during the year for public welfare purposes; or a strengthening of existing organizations, or a raising of standards. Undoubtedly there would be more such reports but that in some states local public welfare activities have been largely restricted to child welfare.

Legislation, 1929. Important enactments of the year were the following: New York (Ch. 565), revising comprehensively the poor law of the state, providing for local welfare districts, commissioners of public welfare, and other matters: Michigan (Ch. 21), authorizing annual meetings of county agents, with payment of expenses of attendance; West Virginia (Ch. 30), making mandatory instead of optional the organization of county welfare boards and regulating the membership and duties of such boards; Minnesota (Ch. 371), providing for joint welfare boards of counties and cities under specified conditions. Bills defeated during the year included one in Indiana for the establishment of public welfare boards in counties of 300,000 population or over, and one in Pennsylvania providing for a welfare board in each city, borough, town, and township of the state.

CONSULT: Kelso, Robert W.: *The Science of Public Welfare*, 1928; Breckinridge, Sophonisba P.: *Public Welfare Administration, Select Documents*, 1927; Steiner, Jesse F.: *Community Organization*, 1925; McClenaham, Bessie A.: *Organizing the Community*, 1922; Odum and Willard: *Systems of Public Welfare*, 1925; New York Bureau of Municipal Research: *County Government in Virginia*, 1928; Kansas City Public Service Institute: *Charities and Corrections, Jackson County, Mo.*, 1928; Reed, Ellery F.: *Program for the Development of a Department of Public Welfare for Cincinnati*, 1927; Odum, H. W.: "Public Welfare in the United States," in *Annals of the American Academy*, January, 1923; Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor: *County Organization for Child Care and Protection* (Bulletin No. 106), 1922, and *The County as a Unit for an Organized Program of Child Caring and Protective Work* (Bulletin No. 169), 1926; Greer, Sarah: *Bibliography of Public Administration*, Chapter VIII, 1926; Abbott, Grace: "The County vs. the Community as an Administrative Unit," in *The Social Service Review*, March, 1930; and reports and publications of state departments of public welfare.

FRANK BANE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES. The American philosophy of welfare embodied in state systems has its roots in the inequalities of American conditions of life. Its central principle is equalization of social opportunity, and in this it does not differ radically from the aspirations of public education and public health.

In expressing this philosophy, the first state to organize an agency was Massachusetts. Its board of state charities was created in 1863. By the end of 1929 only Mississippi, Nevada, and Utah were without state welfare agencies of one type or another. In the case of Arkansas a Board of Charities and Corrections was created in 1925, but abolished in 1927, and a secretary, serving each and all of the honorary boards (re-established to control institutions), was provided, with offices at the capital. (Laws, 1929, Ch. 49.) Idaho has a department of public welfare which is in reality a health department. (For a list of agencies, *see* Bulletin of the Russell Sage Foundation Library, No. 96, August, 1929, entitled *Directory of State Boards—Administration, Control, Charities and Corrections, Public Welfare, etc.*)

State agencies were often known at the outset as boards or departments of charities, or of charities and correction, and many of them still bear that title. The first states to substitute "public welfare" or "social welfare" for "charities" in their titles were Illinois and North Carolina, in 1917, and the latest state was New York, in 1929.

Public Welfare, State Agencies

The variety of public welfare functions assumed in the states with varying degrees of comprehensiveness is suggested by the variety of agencies set up to administer them, and by the variety of administrative subdivisions existing in the larger state agencies. There are units for: (1) Public welfare in general, which may cover more or less all the fields to follow. (2) Child welfare. There may be separate agencies for child placing and adoption, child labor, orthopedic work, mothers' aid, delinquency and dependency, including girls' welfare, court work, probation and parole, care of illegitimates, unmarried mothers, and family welfare work generally. (3) Corrections. There may be separate agencies for pardons, parole, probation, convict supervision, criminal identification, defective delinquents, and so forth. (4) Mental hygiene. There may be separate agencies for the insane, the feeble-minded, the epileptic and other special classes, mental and health clinics, eugenics control. (5) Population classes. These are served by a number of special agencies, such as those for the aged and the infirm, old age pensions, deaf, blind, veterans, soldiers and sailors, Negroes, Indians, and other racial groups. (6) Business administration and control. There may be separate agencies for finance, public works and buildings, purchasing and supplies, accounts and audit, personnel administration, including civil service. (7) State institutional administration. There may be separate agencies for each institution (boards or trustees), boards of visitors for each or for a class of institutions, commissioners over penal and correctional institutions as a group, mental hygiene institutions as a group, "welfare" and children's institutions as a group, a bureau of institutional inspection, and so forth. (8) Survey and development. There may be separate agencies for codifying children's laws, poor laws, crime laws, hospital and institutional development commissions, survey commissions to determine a variety of social conditions, crime commissions, and so forth. (9) General administrative agencies, such as state administrative commissions, governor's councils, "cabinets," departmental advisory boards, governmental survey and advisory commissions.

Important functions developed within recent years are indicated by the bureaus or divisions of some of the larger agencies. They include the following: County organization and community service, such as Virginia now has and other states are attempting to form; or bureaus for promoting social case work, of which Ohio and New Mexico afford examples; or bureaus of social statistics and reporting, as in Georgia; or registration bureaus of all clients known to state agencies, similar in function to social service exchanges operated locally under private auspices, Minnesota and Ohio furnishing examples of this development; or bureaus for research and survey, such as are organized in New Jersey, Illinois, and Ohio; and finally bureaus for education, publicity and promotion, long a recognized function of state agencies, but one which has assumed new prominence as state administration has become decentralized and supervision centralized.

When state systems are examined, the constellation of agencies in any one state is found to be unique, not duplicated in any other state. One state may have a dominant agency controlling or coordinating most of the functions existing. (Examples—Pennsylvania, North Carolina, Illinois, and Minnesota) Another may not have any dominant agency, but may provide for a limited set of functions by means of separate boards for each. (Examples—Arkansas, Nevada, Mississippi, and Utah) Still another may head up major functions in a cluster of state departments. These departments may differ from one another by virtue of population classes served (Examples — Massachusetts and New York); or by virtue of administrative techniques handled (Examples—California and Washington). Again there may be a cluster of more or less independent lesser agencies sharing the field with a dominant one. These represent "experimental" phases

of the field, temporary functions, or those dominated by special-interest groups, such as veterans, the blind, or the deaf. Examples are found in most of the states.

The governing authority in the case of each agency may be one of several varieties. (1) A "commissioner" or "director" appointed by the governor or other power, and accountable to him, who has sole or nearly independent administrative prerogatives. The important and usual limitation is an "advisory board" set up within the department, with varying degrees of power concurrent with that of the commissioner. (2) A "lay board" appointed by the governor or other authority, with overlapping terms, serving without pay, often with power to employ an expert administrator and determine his salary, duties, and tenure. (3) A "professional board" or "commission" appointed by the governor or other authority with overlapping terms and adequate salaries, constituting a group of "experts" jointly administering the department. (4) An "ex officio" board consisting of general state officers, elected or appointed, constituted with power to administer welfare functions. (5) Temporary boards, boards of visitors, "honorary" boards, or "advisory" boards, usually unpaid, consisting of laymen specially qualified by expertness, or by special interest and social connections to perform special supervisory, advisory, or investigational functions. (6) A mixture of any or all of these types. Space does not permit a discussion of the relative merits of these governing forms, but there is little consensus of opinion as to their relative merits, and the whole situation needs study and evaluation. Each form represents a peculiar cluster of values thought to be essential in public administration, but it is useless to be dogmatic about their general applicability.

The degree of control over state functions exercised by the more centralized agencies with state-wide powers also varies. Applied to state institutions, it ranges from complete authority over the institutions—including control of finances, management, personnel, and wards—to a nominal advisory relationship with institutional boards or officials. Applied to local institutions, it ranges from control over disposition of inmates to nominal supervision of records and the collection of reports of various types. Applied to private agencies and institutions, it varies from power to charter a wide range of agencies to inspection and collection of reports. Applied to persons, it varies from contact with a limited range of specified dependents to any normal individuals in their educational, recreational, occupational, and civic relationships. Applied to communities, it varies from authority to promote community reform and organization to survey of social conditions in communities. Applied to local governing agencies and officials, it varies from no control whatever to power to certificate and appoint. Financial control is a power over institutions and the counties in pension arrangements, support of persons, and so forth. It is very often separated from the strictly welfare agencies, however, and lodged in other state departments. The same is true of power over personnel and business administration.

In general, it should be said that in this field as in other fields of state activity—education and health, for instance—the state welfare agency is gradually coming to be recognized as the authoritative source of leadership in such work, public and private, within its borders. By law and judicial opinion the principle is being laid down that certain fields of local administration and private administration as well are being handled by virtue of authority from the state, and that agencies in these fields are really agents of the state. Examples are the mandatory legislation establishing county units; subsidies to localities; control of personnel; chartering authority; supervision over delinquents and offenders, and so forth. This is an important development, and indicates a gradual crystallization of a definite and growing field of responsibility for the general welfare.

Other trends of importance may be sum-

marized under the following headings: Greater emphasis on professional standards for personnel employed by state boards in social service positions or recommended by them for employment by local boards; greater emphasis on research, often under the stimulus of grants from private sources as a preliminary to important reforms; the use of new techniques in the field of public welfare in addition to those of research and personnel improvement; and the increasing influence of private agencies.

Greater emphasis on professional standards is shown by the growing body of law prescribing qualifications for specified officials, fixing their salaries, and in some instances placing them on a civil service status; by the increasing tendency shown by state boards to recruit only trained personnel and to provide training facilities for others in their employ; by the increased insistence, both in law and in usage, that for wards of the state investigation and supervision by case-work methods must precede and accompany treatment; and by the fact that state boards holding these standards are increasingly being allowed to control appointments to responsible local positions and even to regulate personnel in private institutions.

An illustration of this new emphasis upon professional standards is found, for instance, in the states of Alabama, North Carolina, and New Mexico, which are coming to require college degrees and from two to eight years' experience in social work or education for state and county workers; in the fact that such states as Ohio, California, and New York apply civil service standards in filling all positions except the administrative; in the fact that California requires a social worker to be employed by each child-caring institution, while Louisiana reports that case work is required on all admissions to children's institutions. Among the states which make definite arrangements for training local workers are Alabama, North Carolina, and Ohio. The Institute for Juvenile Research, administered by the Department of Public Welfare in Illinois, has close relationships affecting research and personnel with the University of Illinois, the University of Chicago, and other institutions. The University of Iowa has long been associated with state work in Iowa.

The greatest problems in this connection are the dearth of qualified rural workers, the inadequate salaries paid highly trained persons, and instability of tenure in the upper administrative branches, coupled with the rigidity of civil service tenure in the lower reaches, which sometimes intrenches old and untrained persons in positions calling for special training and ability.

Greater emphasis on research as a preliminary to reform is shown by recent progress in the collection of comparable social statistics and the reporting of work, and the use of such data by state boards for education, administration, and evaluation of their work. State boards are cooperating with private organizations to a greater degree than ever before. (The work of Ralph G. Hurlin, under the auspices of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, published in a recent annual report of the State Department of Public Welfare, is an example. The National Institute of Public Administration has achieved and promises important contributions in this field.) Different departments of the federal government and three unofficial commissions appointed by President Hoover—the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, and the Research Committee on Social Trends—are carrying on research which requires the closest cooperation and assistance of state departments of public welfare.

Among the developing techniques which have recently assumed added prominence are the following: the increased publication of reports, bulletins, and other documents in attractive forms and greater quantity; the constant effort to carry on promotional work through organization of social workers and interested lay groups under state auspices,

the holding of conventions and training institutes, the staging of demonstrations, the use of representative committees for fixing standards, determining salaries, or conducting studies; the advancement of professional solidarity through the holding of conferences of institutional heads and state conventions of a technical and scientific character and through the use of "in-service education."

The so-called "direct" activities of state agencies in local areas have led to the evolution of many of the newer techniques, which have as their objects the promotion of special procedures which it is expected will later become local functions. County welfare units are thus organized in Virginia and North Carolina. In other fields, especially those requiring social case work, representatives of state agencies carry on temporary local demonstrations. Such methods are established in Pennsylvania and Ohio, among other states.

The increasing influence of private agencies in the field of state supported public welfare activities has been specially marked in recent years. Among national agencies or foundations which have recently contributed to the development of public welfare through surveys of special fields, demonstrations of special techniques, financial assistance, or assistance in legislative campaigns, and which are fairly representative of the field, are the American Red Cross, National Probation Association, American Association for Old Age Security, National Committee for Mental Hygiene, National Child Labor Committee, Rockefeller Foundation, Commonwealth Fund, Duke Endowment, Child Welfare League of America, and the Children's Fund of Michigan. The National Institute of Public Administration has been responsible for surveys of the government in Virginia and New Jersey which contain recommendations for changes in the form of welfare administration, and proposes a similar survey in Maine.

Important state agencies whose work is of current interest are the State Charities Aid Association, which was largely instrumental in the passage of the recent public welfare law of New York; the Pennsylvania Public Charities Association, which has developed county work and promoted statistical reporting; and the Wisconsin Conference of Social Work, which was largely instrumental in the passage of the new child welfare code of that state. Crime commissions, those of New York and Illinois especially, should not be omitted from the picture; and some states report that local councils of social agencies are the sources from which recommendations come for various administrative work, such as licensing of private institutions.

Among the recent events in particular states only the few that are outstanding can be mentioned here. New York has rewritten its "poor law" (Laws, 1929, Ch. 565), renamed the Public Welfare Law, putting local administration on a county-city basis, abolishing overseers of the poor, and liberalizing and modernizing the whole function; California (Laws, 1927, Ch. 49) has included the Director of Welfare in the recently established Governor's Council. Its State Department of Social Welfare and the counties are together to administer the new pension law passed in 1929 (Ch. 530). They also will administer the new pension law for the blind (Laws, 1929, Ch. 529). California has made conspicuous progress in recent years in developing county welfare organization under permissive legislation. New Mexico has shown sudden vitality; it is emphasizing local responsibility, social case work methods, and decentralization of child-caring activities better handled by local units. Montana, Ohio, and Minnesota are similarly facing problems created by too prevalent use of centralized state institutions in children's cases. Ohio is contemplating possible reorganization of phases of its work under the impetus of the Report of the Joint Committee on Economy in the Public Service of the Ohio General Assembly, 1929. (Part V deals especially with Public Welfare.) Recent extension of jurisdiction by state agencies over local private agencies

with respect to maternity homes, child care institutions, and homes for the aged has taken place in Florida, Pennsylvania, Massachusetts, and other states. Many new agencies have been organized, some of the types represented being a crippled children's commission and a commission for the blind in Florida; a public institutions improvement board in Idaho, a state eugenics board in Iowa, an institutional survey commission in Missouri, a child welfare department in Kentucky, and a children's code commission in Maryland.

Reports from state welfare agencies reveal important studies contemplated, in progress, or just completed. Most of them relate to particular activities carried on by such agencies, or under their supervision. Included were studies as to child dependency, delinquency, and child welfare in Florida, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Maine, Georgia, Iowa, Massachusetts, Nebraska, New Mexico, Oregon, and Illinois. Investigations, however, dealing with administrative or functional problems of public welfare agencies were made in several states. They included the following: Studies of personnel, reported from Ohio; studies of the ability of local government to support welfare workers, reported from Florida; and studies of the state administration generally, reported from Maine, Virginia, and Missouri. Marietta Stevenson of the federal Children's Bureau is making a careful study of state systems of public welfare. This should be a valuable contribution when published.

CONSULT: Chamberlain, J. P.: "Government," and Lindsay, S. McC.: "Social Legislation," and other articles in *American Journal of Sociology*, May, 1929; Odum, H. W., Editor: "Public Welfare in the United States, with a Supplement: Child Welfare," in *Annals of the American Academy*, January, 1923; Kelso, Robert W.: *The Science of Public Welfare* (a text and general treatise covering the history and philosophy of the subject), 1928; Odum, Howard W.: *An Approach to Public Welfare and Social Work* (a handbook and outline for training welfare workers in state and county work), 1926; Odum and Willard: *Systems of Public Welfare* (a collection of articles dealing with the history, organization and administration of public welfare with reference to local, state, and national jurisdictions), 1925; Breckinridge, Sophonisba P.: *Public Welfare Administration in the United States* (a source book), 1927; and Abbott, Grace: "The County vs. the Community as an Administrative Unit," in *The Social Service Review*, March, 1930.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

PUBLICITY IN SOCIAL WORK. Social agencies engage in publicity chiefly to enlist public opinion in favor of social reforms; to obtain financial support for social work; and to influence individual behavior, especially in regard to health and safety. For these ends the most widely used channels of public information are newspapers and public speaking. Magazine articles, books and pamphlets, motion pictures, radio broadcasting, posters, and a dozen other media, each requiring the skillful application of a special technique, are included in the publicity programs of national, state, and local agencies.

History and Present Status. One of the earliest organized campaigns of educational publicity on a large scale was carried out by the National Tuberculosis Association from 1905 to 1912, when a traveling tuberculosis exhibit under the direction of Evart G. Routzahn toured the states east of the Mississippi. In 1908 the National Tuberculosis Association organized a publicity bureau, under Philip P. Jacobs, which distributed health information to 12,000 newspapers and other publications. The New York Child Welfare Exhibit in 1910 was a spectacular presentation of social problems affecting children; it impressed not only New York City, but the whole country, and was followed in the four or five succeeding years by similar exhibits in other cities, in which social agencies, schools, churches, and

hundreds of volunteer workers participated. In 1912 the Russell Sage Foundation established the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, partly for the development of the exhibit as a method of spreading information. Members of the staff directed or participated in a series of publicity projects centering around exhibits, and in 1918 a book was published, The A B C of Exhibit Planning, embodying the results of this experience.

A demand for opportunities for the exchange of ideas about publicity methods led to the organization of the Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work (now the Social Work Publicity Council), which met in Providence in 1922, and thereafter annually, as an associate group of the National Conference of Social Work. The interest shown led to the formation by the Conference of a division on educational publicity in 1925. A similar development of interest among public health workers caused the American Public Health Association to add a section on public health education in 1921. That section meets regularly as part of the annual convention, and sponsors a department of education and publicity in the American Journal of Public Health. Both the Social Work Publicity Council and the section on public health education were initiated and developed with the aid of the Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation.

Analysis of the membership of the Social Work Publicity Council indicates that active interest in the development of good educational publicity is greatest among public health workers, with community chests and councils a close second. In the earlier days of the community chest movement, member agencies were inclined to depend almost altogether on the chests to keep the public informed, but to an increasing extent chest executives and publicity directors are now encouraging and helping member agencies to participate in social interpretation. Publicity councils exist at present in 12 communities, most of them sponsored by the local council of social agencies. There are probably between two and three hundred publicity secretaries of social agencies in the country, a rough estimate which includes both those employed for full time and those who give part time to several agencies.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Most of those engaged in publicity work at present have had previous experience or training in one or more of the special techniques used, such as newspaper writing, editing, directing intensive campaigns, and so on. Several short courses of study in publicity for social work are now given, but there are no systematic training courses to prepare students to engage in publicity work. Publicity institutes have been held in connection with several state conferences of social work in recent years, and institutes and short courses have been sponsored by several national organizations.

Developments and Events, 1929. Recognition of the importance of planned publicity directed toward specific objectives was shown during the year in the awards offered by the Harmon Foundation for the best year's records of planned publicity in specified fields, and in discussions of the year's publicity calendar and program at the annual meetings of the National Conference of Social Work and of the American Public Health Association. The Harmon Foundation also offered awards for cartoons with a social message, and for unpublished articles on social work suitable for magazines of general circulation. The outstanding exhibit of the year was the second Parents' Exposition in New York, sponsored by the United Parents' Association. Also in New York was the exhibit of art and photographs used in social work publicity arranged by the New York Social Work Publicity Council. In the field of dramatic publicity a play was produced with a social work theme, called "The Undercurrent," by Fay H. Ehlert. This had much success on a vaudeville circuit, attracting editorial comment and

feature articles. In several cities women's clubs or publicity writers in social agencies helped to arouse public interest in the performances. In a number of cities radio periods were placed regularly at the service of social agencies. The exchange of publicity material among community chests, continued during the year under the auspices of the Association of Community Chests and Councils, was accompanied by bulletins commenting on the material. These were helpful in raising the standards of community chest publicity, especially in connection with the money-raising campaigns. In the public health field the outstanding educational campaigns were those for prevention of diphtheria and for the early diagnosis of tuberculosis. See HEALTH EDUCATION, POPULAR, and DIPHTHERIA PREVENTION.

CONSULT: Routzahn, Mary S.: *Travelling Publicity Campaigns*, 1920; Routzahn, Evart G. and Mary S.: *Publicity Methods Reading List*, 1924; Quiett and Casey: *Principles of Publicity*, 1926; National Conference of Social Work, Division of Educational Publicity: *Proceedings*, 1926–1929; Stillman, Charles C.: *Social Work Publicity*, 1927; Routzahn, Mary S. and Evart G.: *Publicity for Social Work*, 1928; current discussion in the *Survey Mid-Monthly*, *Better Times*, *American Journal of Public Health* and *News Bulletin* of Social Work Publicity Council.

MARY SWAIN ROUTZAHN

For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

RACE PROBLEMS. *See* IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES and NEGROES.

RECREATION. Play for children is not only a means of education and growth, but is also their chief concern in life. For adults recreation brings opportunities to enjoy activities in which they developed interest and ability during youth and which furnish wholesome opportunity for the use of spare time in their mature years. In his working time man rarely does what he likes most to do. It is in his spare time—the time which he has at his own disposal—that he does those things which build his character, develop his personality, and broaden his intelligence. His likes and dislikes are formed in childhood. Experiences can be given him then and in youth which make for wholesome recreational choices in later life. Lacking these early opportunities he is likely increasingly to choose the leisure-time activities so freely offered by such commercial enterprises as seek only to exploit his desire for self-expression and for release from the monotony and strain of the economic struggle. This need for recreation is not confined to large urban centers; it is just as vital a need in the smaller cities, towns, and rural districts. In fact it is needed wherever people live.

Recreation includes a broad program of activities designed to supply a full play life for children and to meet the recreational needs, broadly conceived, of young people and adults. A community adequately organized for recreation will develop year-round physical activities, music, drama, manual arts and crafts, in addition to nature activities, camping, social recreation, and what may be termed citizenship activities. The latter cover such civic undertakings as historical pageants, celebration of holidays, folk plays and local efforts to promote an appreciation of the native recreational activities of well-defined foreign groups. For most of these activities special articles will be found in this volume. A well-rounded recreational program requires the use of parks, playgrounds, vacant lots, streets, backyards, lakes, beaches, and all available land and water areas. It requires also the use of school buildings, community houses, gymnasiums, libraries, auditoriums, museums, church, club and other institutional buildings, and the homes of the community. The program also needs the support of churches, civic and welfare organizations, neighborhood, labor, commercial, and industrial organizations; the cooperation of park, school, recreation, and other governmental departments; and, above all, the

active support of the citizenship as a whole.

Community recreation programs are generally administered by local school boards or by county or other governmental units. Many private agencies also, such as settlements, boys' and girls' clubs, and scouting organizations, include recreation in the programs which they provide for their special groups. The nationally organized groups serving boys and girls which do this now number more than 50.

Municipal programs are usually administered by a special recreation commission or board, the park board, or the school board. In 1929 administration by recreation boards or departments was reported in 210 cities; park boards in 218 cities, and school boards in 152 cities. Where year-round programs were reported, they were administered by recreation boards in 119 cities; park boards in 35 cities, and school boards in 21 cities.

History and Present Status. Although previous to 1886 several cities had provided outdoor play space and outdoor gymnasiums for children, the first children's playground under leadership was opened about 1886 in Boston. Accordingly, the modern movement is said to date from that time. Private agencies were most active in early days, but municipalities gradually became more interested. The organization of the Playground Association of America in 1906 (now the National Recreation Association) was the logical outcome of earlier efforts. With this national organization came a more rapid local development in play and recreation. Each year since 1906 the number of cities starting play activities under leadership has been nearly as great as the total number carrying on such work before national organization was effected. In 1929 there were 747 cities which reported the expenditure of tax funds for recreation, and 134 reported the expenditure of private funds only. Tax funds supplied 84 per cent of the total expended during the year. More and more private associations are limiting themselves to activities of a pioneering, demonstrative character, with a view to having them taken over, when well established, by their municipalities, so that they themselves can undertake further pioneer work.

The extent to which cities are providing recreation is best shown by the following figures taken from the *Year Book* of the National Recreation Association for 1929:

Activities or Facilities	*Cities Reporting Them*
Playgrounds (7,681)	763
Indoor community recreation centers (2,341)	255
Recreation buildings (678)	214
Athletic fields (1,709)	544
Baseball diamonds (4,024)	654
Public bathing beaches (409)	220
Nine or eighteen hole golf courses (299)	230
Stadiums (81)	71
Summer camps (115)	74
Indoor swimming pools (310)	122
Outdoor swimming pools (700)	308
Public tennis courts (7,960)	569
Recreation areas and facilities of other types (3,343)	297
Total expenditures ($33,539,805.79)	890
Organized baseball leagues	433
Organized basketball leagues	297
Organized bowling leagues	69
Organized football leagues	127
Organized horseshoe pitching leagues	235
Organized playground baseball leagues	348
Organized soccer football leagues	96
Organized volley ball leagues	239
Organized programs in art activities	232
Special athletic organization of industrial groups	290
Organization of bands	151
Community singing activities	198
Classes in first aid	200
Children's garden work	79
Special handicraft activities	434
Organized hiking groups	244
Special holiday celebrations	288
Junior police organizations	98
Motion pictures	159
Nature study activities	191
Pageants produced	137
Water sports	371
Various winter sport activities	252
Model aircraft	194
Safety activities	168
Social dancing	186
Christmas caroling	182

The significant features of these reports, year after year, are the increasing attention paid to adult recreation and the emphasis

on other than physical recreational activities.

In recent years research in recreational matters has been widely developed. Recreation surveys have been made in scores of cities, among the more notable being those of Rochester, N. Y., and Indianapolis. Localities have also studied the relation of playgrounds to juvenile delinquency and to safety; factors influencing the location of play areas, the evaluation of different playground activities, and the play interests of children. The National Recreation Association has made a number of national surveys and local studies. Among its more significant reports are those relating to municipal parks, camps, cost of recreational facilities, county parks, design and equipment of play areas, donated park and play areas, and normal courses in play.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. If the play life of children is to profit fully by the facilities available, it must have sympathetic, competent leadership. Adults, too, cannot gain the most from their search for recreation except as there is skilled leadership that will supply facilities and organizing service. Exclusive of laborers, caretakers, office and clerical workers, there are nearly 23,000 employed workers in the community recreation field, about 2,700 of whom are employed on full time, the year round, in recreational leadership. Seasonal workers are employed primarily for summer playground and winter evening community center service. Standards of employment are being steadily raised, and widespread demand has developed for opportunities for training. In response, 120 colleges, universities, schools of social work and special institutions now offer courses in training for recreation leadership. The National Recreation Association maintains a National Recreation School which offers a post-graduate course of nine months for those who wish professional training and plan to make recreation their life work. It also conducts a short course each summer to give intensive training to those already in the work, and a four weeks' summer course to train recreation workers for Negro groups. In addition it has recently offered a special correspondence course for summer playground workers. At present the Association has three workers giving full time to training rural recreation leaders in short-term institutes. The total attendance during 1929 was about 7,000.

In many states the development of recreation by municipalities has required special legislation to legalize the expenditure of tax funds for this purpose, though in some states school codes, general park laws, and broad home rule provisions have been held sufficient. Special charter powers have been utilized in the large metropolitan centers. Twenty-one states now have special recreation laws giving broad powers to municipalities, school and park districts, and counties to establish recreation programs. In other states laws have been passed to allow the development of particular forms of recreation, such as the wider use of school buildings for community center purposes.

During 1929 studies were made under the auspices of the National Recreation Association relating to recreation leadership, play in institutions, recreation for women and girls, community music, policies and practices in charging for municipal recreation activities, school recreation, recreation in new real estate subdivisions, recreation standards in city planning, recreation salaries, and minimum standards of training and experience for recreation workers.

CONSULT: Lee, Joseph: *Play in Education*, 1915; Addams, Jane: *The Spirit of Youth and the City Streets*, 1909; Pound, Arthur: *The Iron Man in Industry*, 1922; National Recreation Association: *Normal Course in Play*, 1925; Bowen and Mitchell: *The Theory and Practice of Organized Play*, 1927; Nash, Jay B.: *Organization and Administration of Playgrounds and Recreation*, 1927; Williams, Marguerita P.: *Sources of Information on Play and Recreation* (a bibliography), 1927; special publications of the National Recreation Association and issues of its periodicals, *The Playground*

and *Recreation Bulletin Service.* References relating to specialized forms of recreation are appended to the articles on such topics.

HOWARD S. BRAUCHER

For specialized recreational activities *see* AMATEUR OUTDOOR ATHLETICS AND SPORTS; AMATEUR DRAMATICS; ARTS AND CRAFTS; BATHING PLACES; BOYS' CLUBS; CHILDREN'S GARDENS; CHURCH RECREATION; COMMERCIAL RECREATION; COMMUNITY CENTERS; GIRLS' CLUBS; HIKING; HOME RECREATION; INDUSTRIAL RECREATION; MOTION PICTURES; MUSIC; NATURE STUDY; PAGEANTS; PARKS, PLAYGROUNDS, AND RECREATION CENTERS; PLAY FESTIVALS; PUBLIC DANCE HALLS; RURAL ORGANIZATION FOR RECREATION; SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS; SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS; STORY TELLING; SUMMER CAMPS AND DAY OUTINGS; THE THEATRE; and YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 595.

RE-EDUCATION. *See* REHABILITATION.

REFORM SCHOOLS. *See* DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE; and DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE.

REFORMATORIES. *See* DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE; DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE; and PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS.

REGIONAL PLANNING. *See* CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING.

REGISTRATION OF CLIENTS IN SOCIAL WORK. *See* SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES.

REGULARIZATION OF EMPLOYMENT. *See* UNEMPLOYMENT.

REHABILITATION as an organized activity relating to the physically handicapped usually connotes vocational re-establishment, and is frequently limited to the official federal-state work of this character. It implies vocational training, as well as a large element of careful advisement. However, it may include merely economic restoration without a period of training, the physical reconstruction provided by cooperating agencies, or the building up of morale through expert guidance and placement. At one time the term "re-education" was used as synonymous with "rehabilitation," and it is still so used in a few statutes, but the term that is overwhelmingly preferred is "rehabilitation." As distinguished from occupational therapy, rehabilitation aims at definite remunerative placement in the economic world, while the primary purpose of occupational therapy is the healing or functional improvement of body or mind. Sheltered employment is a phase of rehabilitation which takes care of persons who are unable to establish themselves in the competitive world. It is, however, a variant. The norm is the re-establishment of substandard workers in the same fields and on the same wage-earning basis as their unimpaired fellow workers. (*See* OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY and SHELTERED WORKSHOPS.)

History and Present Status. Notwithstanding the widely held impression that the rehabilitation of disabled persons is an outgrowth of the government's effort to rehabilitate wounded soldiers and sailors of the World War, the fact is that civilian rehabilitation really developed from other sources, and would have come into existence quite apart from the war. The movement which probably had the most effect in bringing it about was the same as that which fostered workmen's compensation laws. It was early realized that vocational restoration was a necessary complement to the financial relief given to injured workingmen under those statutes, and in the formative stages of the rehabilitation movement the strongest pressure for legislation came from the compensation boards. Re-enforcement was given to the philosophy of the movement from the growing interest in activities for crippled children, and from the experience of a few private bureaus for the handicapped, organized by family welfare societies. The establishment of the Federal Board for Vocational Education in 1917 gave an impetus to rehabilitation plans

by indicating a new type of machinery that would be available.

The first statute in this field was passed by Massachusetts in 1918, creating a division for the re-education and placement of industrial accident victims. Minnesota in 1919 passed a similar statute, but included all types of the disabled. In the same year statutes were passed in New Jersey, Pennsylvania, and Illinois, which were due in part to agitation by the Institute for the Crippled and Disabled in New York City. The federal act of 1920, sometimes called the Smith-Bankhead Act or the Smith-Fess Act, appropriated $1,000,000 to be divided among the states according to population, and on condition that an equal amount was appropriated by the state, in order to promote the vocational rehabilitation of persons "disabled in industry or otherwise." Within a year 23 states had accepted the terms of the act, and the number is now 44. The act holds a unique position in being the only nation-wide governmental activity for the rehabilitation of disabled civilians. It is, however, an activity which terminates on July 1, 1930, unless extended by Congress. A national conference on rehabilitation held in Milwaukee in 1928 urged continuance of federal aid for six years or more beyond 1930; and also, because of the need for a more extended program, urged an increase in the amounts allotted.

Vocational rehabilitation is at present entirely a civilian activity; all training activities under the Veterans' Bureau ceased in 1926. Disabled soldiers and sailors who now require vocational readjustment are cared for through the same channels as the general population, except that additional cooperating agencies are available. Rehabilitation work under state auspices is almost always conducted as a division or bureau of the board for vocational education and usually within the state department of education. *See* EDUCATION, STATE AGENCIES. The chief exceptions are New Jersey, where the work is under a separate commission; Pennsylvania, where it is part of the Department of Labor and Industry; and Montana and Oregon, where it is under the Industrial Accident Board. In all but a few of the smaller states the director or supervisor of the work has a staff of professional assistants. Each disabled person is studied individually in accordance with case work methods, and treatment is continued until re-establishment is accomplished, in so far as that is possible. The tendency has been increasingly toward rehabilitation by vocational training. A staff member selects suitable occupations for the disabled persons, arranges for training in the best available agency, public or private, contracts on behalf of the state to pay their tuition and frequently also for their educational supplies, supervises them in training, and finally places them in employment or arranges for their placement. Allowances for the maintenance of those given training during their vocational course are the exception rather than the rule. It is probable that the number of rehabilitation bureaus securing maintenance for their clients through application to other public bodies or private agencies is greater than the number administering such funds directly.

Except in New Jersey, physical restoration is not ordinarily an integral part of the rehabilitation work. In several states, however, such service is frequently supplied by other public or private agencies, and in many states the rehabilitation office itself provides artificial members if these have relation to the prospective occupation and render employment more feasible. The Federal Board for Vocational Education distributes to the states whatever part of the authorized $1,000,000 is appropriated by Congress—never hitherto exceeding $700,000 a year—but the federal funds and the corresponding funds appropriated by the state cannot be spent for maintenance, nor for physical restoration, nor for permanent equipment.

Because they are official agencies the rehabilitation services report by governmental fiscal years, which start with July first.

Figures here given are therefore for the year 1928–1929. During that year 41 states were engaged in rehabilitation work. The amount of federal funds expended was $664,739, and of state funds, $824,948. There were 149 staff members employed. The number of rehabilitations reported was 4,645, as compared with 5,012 in the previous fiscal year. By rehabilitation in these reports is meant the rendering of a disabled person fit to engage in a remunerative occupation, and definite proof that he has so engaged. Nearly two-thirds of the rehabilitated persons were under the age of 30, showing that the work tends to concentrate upon the younger group of the disabled. According to the origin of disability, the largest group consisted of victims of employment accidents, a little less than two-fifths of the whole. Rehabilitation was obtained through school training in 2,379 cases, while "employment training" or "training on the job" accounted for 644, and job restoration, which embraced all other methods, including placement, accounted for 1,622. Several tendencies were clearly noticeable in the report of expenditures. The increase in tuition costs from $177,543 in the fiscal year 1921–1922 to $512,353 in 1928–1929 reflected not only the large number of states included, but the very strong trend toward a training program rather than one merely of placement. In the field of maintenance the tendency to provide for the expenses of the person to be trained is shown by an increase in the amount spent by the states for maintenance from $18,309 in 1922 to $100,868 in 1928–1929. As there is no national agency representing rehabilitation work done by private agencies, no report on such work is possible. In many instances they have undoubtedly cooperated with public agencies and have contributed to the results shown in the official reports.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Although the case method of treatment is the foundation of vocational rehabilitation work, the public agencies administering it have shown little disposition to require that their staffs shall have had training or experience in social case work. Instead, since vocational education is the chief factor used in rehabilitation, a knowledge of vocational education as well as of vocational guidance and placement work has been given first place in the requirements for employment. Private agencies, however, have been more inclined to give recognition to social case work training. At present there are no definite courses given in rehabilitation work, owing largely to the limited personnel employed. Only a few states have put rehabilitation work under civil service regulations, yet as part of the state departments of education it has usually been kept out of politics.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year as a whole was noteworthy for the extension of rehabilitation to the District of Columbia (Public 801, 70th Congress, 2d Session), and for the acceptance of the federal act and the inauguration of rehabilitation work by Connecticut (Ch. 201), Maryland (Ch. 201), and Texas (Ch. 23, Special Session). That action increased the total number of states engaged in such work from 41 to 44. Probably the most important change of policy during the year was a further extension of rehabilitation work to the tuberculous. That group has always been considered eligible under the statutes, but most states have been reluctant to give attention to its members for fear they would become too large a problem. A special study made during the year by the Federal Board showed that 208 tuberculous cases had been included among the rehabilitated cases of the year 1928, the Middle West being the region which has shown the greatest activity in this line. Greater efforts were also made generally to correlate the rehabilitation bureaus with the work being carried on for crippled children under public and private auspices. Another study in progress during the year related to opportunities for the handicapped in Minneapolis, and was made

by Charles A. Prosser in order to discover the feasibility of a joint placement bureau. This study is to be published by the Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Legislation, 1929. For the significant legislation of the year see the preceding section.

CONSULT: Sullivan and Snortum: *Disabled Persons, Their Education and Rehabilitation,* 1926; La Dame, Mary: *Securing Employment for the Handicapped* (Welfare Council of New York City), 1927; Hathway, Marion: *The Young Cripple and His Job,* 1928; Federal Board for Vocational Education: *Vocational Rehabilitation in the United States,* Bulletin No. 120, June, 1927.

OSCAR M. SULLIVAN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

RELIEF FOR DISASTERS. *See* DISASTER RELIEF.

RELIEF SOCIETIES, as distinguished from family welfare societies, generally include isolated groups whose work is never seriously extended to responsibility for the problems of family disorganization. Emphasis is placed on the giving or withholding of material aid, with the addition, possibly, of words of advice or offers of employment. These societies are found scattered throughout the United States under a variety of names. Organization varies greatly. The eastern section of the country includes societies with paid workers who give out regularized amounts of relief, the policies of the organizations being controlled, however, by one person, usually the salaried worker, supported by a very small interested group. At the other extreme are agencies, often found in the Middle West or South, largely in the hands of boards of women. These usually have active visiting committees. In the Southwest societies often called "provident associations" had visiting committees from the beginning of their history, had a wider object than mere relief giving, and should be regarded as incipient family welfare societies. They were interested in the moral and economic problems of their clients, and on their foundations many family welfare societies have been built. On the whole, community-wide, nonsectarian relief societies are found much less frequently than they were 15 years ago. When they conduct workrooms, employment bureaus, and so on, even though their social case work is meager, their assumption of these services indicates a sense of responsibility toward client and community, and gives promise for the future. In many centers such societies cooperate closely with the family welfare agencies.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19.

RELIGION AND SOCIAL WORK. *See* CHURCH AND SOCIAL WORK.

REMEDIAL LOANS. *See* SMALL LOANS.

RESEARCH IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION. In recent years the organization of the community for social work purposes has been studied by a number of agencies, each motivated by some particular interest. Committees, associations, and federations of national scope have found it necessary to conduct surveys of local activities in order to determine methods, as well as functions, of the national headquarters. Local councils of social agencies and central financing bodies have devoted much effort to surveying the organization and function of social agencies in their communities. Several foundations have also studied social work organization, either at the request of local committees or to determine the policies of the foundation interested.

Research in social work organization has usually been closely related to the function of the agency carrying on the project. A council of social agencies which is considering a plan for central financing may limit the

study of the organization of social work in its community to the problems involving financial support. A national agency in the recreation field will limit its research to the leisure-time field and probably will be interested in the activities of but one age or sex group in that field. A foundation may be interested in the organization of but one type of agency, either local or national.

Research in community organization may take one of at least four forms. It may be centered on determining the processes by which social organizations develop. Social workers are constantly using the techniques of community organization. Studies, therefore, in the methods used in forming associations, and in strengthening and interpreting such associations, are essential to social work development. Another form of such research aims to discover the actual set-up of the social agencies of a community. As contrasted with a study of developmental techniques, comparable to a motion picture of social work, this analysis of the agencies may well be photographic in its purpose. Frequently a study of social work organization is motivated by a desire to reorganize an agency, and the field for such a survey will be limited by this purpose. Lastly, research may be initiated because of an interest in the interrelations of agencies. Sometimes this is with regard to a single function of a group of agencies; at other times it may cover all the functions of social agencies in the area studied.

Much of the effort expended on research in the general field of social relations has had to do with community disorganization rather than with community organization. A small group of people becomes conscious of a social problem and determines to ascertain its size and significance as well as its causes. Some form of organized effort designed to solve the problem studied may result. Many of the studies carried on by the Department of Sociology of the University of Chicago are in this field.

In the field of educational organization for more than two decades efforts have been directed toward the development of standards to be used in research work. In social work organization there has been much less progress in providing such measuring rods of efficiency. Outlines which suggest possible types of investigation in a preliminary community survey exist, as, for example, Margaret Byington's *What Social Workers Should Know About Their Own Communities* (1929), and the community score cards of the Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior (1924), and of the University of West Virginia (Agricultural Extension Bulletin, 1927). When the problem to be studied is the functioning of a local agency, or the efficiency of the total social work program of a given area, few data are available on which to base the needed inquiries. More study is needed into the resources of a community in its social work associations and their functioning and interrelationships. A study undertaken by the Joint Committee of the Association of Community Chests and Councils and the Local Community Research Committee of the University of Chicago known as the Registration of Social Statistics, which in 1930 is to be transferred to the federal Children's Bureau, is a step toward determining standards in the statistical field. The Income and Expenditure Study of the Welfare Council of New York City is another example in the same general field. Such preliminary studies are basic to social work organization. Too frequently investigation has either been entirely neglected or has been relegated to a later step in the process.

Several recent studies have had to do with the processes of community development in social work. Schools of social work have been especially interested in research of this type. It is handicapped because a technique of community organization comparable to the techniques of social case work still remains to be developed. Some steps have been taken in that direction, however. E. C. Lindeman studied 700 community projects, and in his *Community* (1921)

attempted to formulate the steps of the organization process. In *Community Conflict* (published by The Inquiry, 1929) he examines a large number of conflict situations, most of them in the social work field. He has worked out in this volume a classification of conflict situations which is helpful to a student of community organization techniques. At Tulane University, in New Orleans, Jesse Steiner has collected and analyzed records of community organization projects. His volume, *The American Community in Action* (1928), contains some of this material. The New York School of Social Work has assembled records of community organization, some of which have been published in *Case Studies in Community Organization* (1928) by the writer of this article. Where social agencies, state or national, have had contacts with local organizations over a period of years through field workers, surveys, and correspondence, their files contain much material of value for the study of techniques. The American Red Cross and the Pennsylvania Children's Aid Society are examples of such agencies; over long periods of time rather detailed records of local contacts have been kept.

The studies which national agencies have made are limited, as a rule, to their own particular fields. The Family Welfare Association of America, however, has occasionally studied the social work set-up of a city in a number of different activities. With the assistance of this association, both St. Louis and Minneapolis conducted self-surveys of their social work. A study of the family agencies and of the Council of Social Agencies of Little Rock, Ark., was in progress during 1929. Other examples of community organization studies made by national or state agencies are *Child Welfare Conditions and Resources in Seven Pennsylvania Counties*, made by Neva R. Deardorff for the United States Children's Bureau (Bulletin No. 176), 1927, and a series of community-wide studies in the children's field by the Child Welfare League of America, which were under way during 1929 in Baltimore, Cincinnati, Milwaukee, Niagara Falls, Omaha, and the State of Michigan.

One of the chief functions of a council of social agencies is the conduct of research in the organization of the social agencies of the community. Numerous such surveys have been conducted, and reference here can be made to but a few. A survey of Recreation Facilities in Rochester, made in 1929 by the Rochester Bureau of Municipal Research for the Council of Social Agencies of that city, covers the organization of recreation in commercial, private, and public fields. Dr. Haven Emerson's Hospital Survey in Philadelphia and a study of Child Welfare in Pittsburgh in progress during 1929 are additional examples. The most extensive survey projects under the auspices of a council are being carried out in New York City. Among the studies of the Welfare Council of that city are a health inventory, and studies of the settlements, of the chronically ill, and of boys' work in Brooklyn.

Foundations have frequently given attention to research in community organization. The Springfield [Ill.] Survey of 1914 was conducted by the Russell Sage Foundation, and in 1920 the Cleveland Foundation was responsible for the Cleveland Recreation Survey. A recent example of such effort is the study of handicapped children in Michigan during 1929, made for the newly created Children's Fund of Michigan. Studies of the Salvation Army, the Young Men's Christian Association, the Young Women's Christian Association, the Girl Scouts, and the National Association of Travelers Aid Societies have also been made. In 1923 the National Information Bureau made a study of the interrelation of the work of national social agencies in 14 American communities. For several of these studies the funds were provided by foundations.

At least three phases of community organization in social work need much further study. Supplementing the beginning already made studies are needed of the processes through which social work agencies develop. Social workers should acquire more abil-

ity in dealing with their communities, in strengthening their community relations, and in organizing new agencies and activities. More information is needed about typical developments. What agencies are organized, what functions and relationships have they, which activities are to be carried on by public funds, and which by private? Lastly, more knowledge is needed of the development and function of the individual agency under such headings as these: its relation to the larger community, the responsibilities of paid and volunteer workers, membership and board functions, and the necessary adjustments to central financing.

WALTER W. PETTIT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

RESEARCH IN CRIME. *See* CRIME COMMISSIONS.

RESEARCH IN SOCIAL WORK. *See* SOCIAL RESEARCH.

RESIDENCES FOR BOYS AND MEN. For a third of a century in this country efforts have been made in several large cities to provide residences for employed boys and single men who were obliged to live away from their families. "Housing for men," as it is sometimes called, has consisted almost everywhere of lodging or dormitory facilities, with optional use of the restaurant frequently provided.

Two distinct plans are apparent in the enterprises promoted in this field—one in which the aim is to provide wholesome facilities at a price which will insure a moderate fixed maximum return on the investment and thus attract more and more capital to serve this need, and a second in which the service motive predominates to such an extent that capital is sought as an endowment or gift upon which neither interest nor taxes must be paid, so that the entire net income may be used for other branches of the work of which the housing enterprise is a part.

History and Present Status. The movement for the limited-dividend business plan owes its origin to the effort made by Lord Rowton in England, late in the nineteenth century, to provide residences on a self-supporting basis for single men of small means. The aim was to obtain a limited return upon the capital required, much like a fixed net rental of 5 or 6 per cent of the cost. The houses were planned for independent men who, for the sake of thrift or because forced to do so by circumstances, patronized charity or rescue missions or one of the "doss" or "flop" houses which exist in most large urban centers. Lord Rowton's thesis was that it should be possible, by organizing the work on a sufficient scale, to provide comfort, cleanliness, security, and privacy at the rates charged by the doss houses. He and some friends built a house and treated the guests with such simple, direct, business-like respect that they evoked a spirit of fair play and kept the house full to capacity from among the better element of doss house clients. Gradually a system of hotels was created paying about 5 per cent.

In 1897 D. O. Mills copied the English plan and attained equal success in New York City. He first built approximately 1,600 rooms; then, presumably in part out of surplus, 600 more; and later a third unit of over 1,900 rooms. These hotels are stated to pay at least savings bank interest every year. In both instances the rates charged for rooms have about doubled, as an adjustment to the decreased purchasing power of money, and to pay the cost of better service. Efforts in other cities to copy the Rowton or Mills houses have been generally discouraged by the scale which appeared necessary for success. Nevertheless, the Wayfarers Hotel in Philadelphia and the Friendly Inn in Baltimore were built and well maintained, though they have not paid consistently. In Brooklyn in 1926 a small hotel on the Rowton-Mills

plan grew out of a home for boys discharged from reformatories. Its facilities are excellent. The house, known as The Bridge-Johnson Hotel, was an interesting experiment because it was less than half the size of the smallest Mills unit. The hotel succeeded, has paid 6 per cent regularly, and has reinvested some surplus in an annex of 107 rooms built in 1929. The rates are the same as in the Mills hotels and the great majority of the flop houses—50 cents a day.

A new enterprise in St. Louis, the Dunn Boys Hotel, was nearly completed during 1929. It plans to operate on the Bridge-Johnson lines, but may more nearly approximate the Children's Aid Society's Newsboys' Home in New York City, which aims at social rehabilitation of boys who have lacked advantages but are on the up-grade. In Boston and Chicago are Dawes houses, which were to have been administered on limited-dividend investment principles. They charge such low rates, however, that no return is made on the capital invested. The accommodations are not so good as in hotels of the Mills type; most of their sleeping quarters are congregate, and thus the houses are not to be regarded as hotels or as permanent residences. Most of the other systems here described have aimed to encourage such residence. The Salvation Army's Palace Hotel in Chicago is administered on principles closely approximating those of the Rowton-Mills-Bridge-Johnson units. Still other types are the houses established by Goodwill Industries and the Salvation Army. These are scattered through the country from Boston and Brooklyn to Los Angeles. In such houses the management aims to supply stimulation and encouragement to the men who use them. All told, the Salvation Army has 67 houses.

Church organizations have instituted seamen's homes in many seaports. *See* SEAMEN. Originally the purpose was to provide a decent alternative to the "crimp house" adjunct of the waterfront saloon. So far as known to the author, these houses were all built from contributions, not from capital investments. Where there is a balance of receipts over expenditures it is applied to religious, educational, relief, and other social service works. Several of these houses have grown to very large proportions. Similar institutions are operated by the Young Men's Christian Association for merchant seamen and men in the Navy.

In the opinion of the author of this article, clients in general have a strong hostility to "free capital" houses, and a friendly respect for those which represent investment capital and have a hotel atmosphere.

The trend is now away from congregate sleeping rooms and double-deck beds, except for emergencies. It seems accepted that the least desirable type is that providing for two or three beds in a room. The tendency is to make plans for rooms so small that it will be impractical to "double up." In all such houses the fewer rules the better; and the more businesslike the enterprise the less temptation and authority there is for them. The rule against interference by one guest with the rights of another—as in visiting from room to room—is supported by public opinion. Ample opportunity for sociability is afforded in the lounges. The Bridge-Johnson house has no written rules.

Of quite a different type are the general dormitories or men's hotels owned and administered by the Young Men's Christian Association. In order to make use of the more usual of these dormitories, in which permanent residence is encouraged, men must become members of the Association. The rates, ranging from $2.50 to $8.00, are higher for many of the rooms than those of the other houses here described, and they accordingly tend to have a clientele of young men of larger incomes. Most rooms are single, and in a few of the newest buildings rooms are provided with running water. In these dormitories the income is calculated to exceed the expenses of administration and upkeep, and the surplus, in view of the exemption from taxation, is equivalent to

what would be needed to pay a return on the capital invested. In practice, however, in such instances, the capital is contributed and the excess income applied to the expenses of departments which have little income beyond the dues of members or contributions. During 1928–1929 dormitories were reported by 487 city associations, with accommodations for 47,385 men. (*Year Book of the National Council*, 1928–1929, p. 131.) The so-called "Y" hotels are usually larger than the residential buildings. They are primarily for transients, and membership in the association is not required. The hotel in Chicago, with 2,800 beds in single rooms, was financed partly with borrowed capital. Rentals are so fixed as to pay operating costs and create a sinking fund for such use as the trustees may decide upon. The Knights of Columbus also operate lodgings or hotels in connection with their general service facilities.

Aside from very brief references in the reports of the national agencies in this field, there is practically no assembled information concerning it. A survey of existing developments, and of the practicability of wholesome and adequate housing for men of small means on a business basis is needed.

CONSULT: Kruesi, Walter: "A New Workingmen's Hotel," in the *Survey*, May 15, 1928; and reports of national agencies in the field.

WALTER KRUESI

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

RESIDENCES FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN. *See* HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN.

ROMAN CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK. *See* CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK.

ROOM REGISTRIES. *See* HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN.

RURAL ORGANIZATION FOR RECREATION. Rural districts in America have a recreation problem as important as that of the urban centers, but it is a problem which requires quite different treatment. In such districts—where boys and girls and young men and women, as well as adults, often live isolated and laborious lives—organized recreation offers social satisfaction which would rarely be available otherwise. It is true that improved roads, increased use of automobiles and the radio, and the development of commercial recreational opportunities in small town centers have all had substantial effect on recreational and social life in the country, but this effect has not always been wholly beneficial. There is great need, particularly among children and young people, for more active and better planned good times.

A number of agricultural and recreational agencies are vigorously attacking the rural recreation problem on a national scale, but progress has been made particularly difficult in recent years by the economic situation of the farmer, which renders it difficult to obtain financial support for new or enlarged recreational programs. However, the Boy Scouts of America, Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, Girl Scouts, and Camp Fire Girls have been steadily extending their activities into rural areas, and the rural church, the grange, and fraternal groups probably carry on a greater number of social activities in rural districts than corresponding groups have undertaken in most urban communities. Among the public agencies active in this field the schools should probably be mentioned first. County and local playground and recreation programs are widely organized under school auspices, and state-wide systems of physical education have been established in many states under the state departments of education. The steady increase of county parks and county libraries is also an important factor in this field. The outstanding agencies, however, are the 4–H clubs organized by the Extension Service of the United

States Department of Agriculture, in cooperation with state agricultural colleges. The activities of these clubs include many recreational features, participated in throughout the year by over 760,000 boys and girls. Engaged in the work are nearly 6,000 state and county "extension workers" in the fields of agriculture and home economics. In addition to promoting 4-H clubs, these workers introduce recreation at the many meetings they arrange, conduct county field days, and introduce play activities and recreational interests in farm homes.

In cooperation with this service the National Recreation Association is furnishing special training to leaders of 4-H clubs, to state extension workers, and to county and home demonstration agents. For that purpose institutes—one week or two weeks in length—are held in a large number of states. In 1929 more than 7,000 rural leaders were thus given training. The Association is giving similar training to rural school teachers, ministers, and other leaders in rural recreational life, and prepares recreational material for use in country districts.

In many states laws exist permitting the needed development of recreation in the open country, small towns usually possessing the same powers in such matters as those of larger cities. Progress waits only on the development of interest in recreation and an appreciation of its importance on the part of town, county, school, and extension officials in such places.

CONSULT: Douglass, H. Paul: *How Shall Country Youth Be Served?*, 1926; Kolb and Wileden: *Rural Community Organizations Hand-Book*, 1926. Williams, Marguerita P.: *Sources of Information on Play and Recreation* (a bibliography), 1927; National Recreation Association: *Rural and Small Community Recreation*, 1929; and Smith, C. B.: *Boys' and Girls' 4-H Club Work* (United States Department of Agriculture, Misc. Circ. No. 77), 1926.

C. B. SMITH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

RURAL SOCIAL WORK. Within the last two decades there has been increasing recognition of the social needs of the rural population, and more systematic methods have been devised to meet those needs. The most commonly accepted definition of "rural" in the United States is that of the federal Bureau of the Census. It includes people living in the open country and in centers of population up to 2,500. Lines between rural and urban centers cannot be sharply drawn, but it is estimated that the rural areas contain over 40 per cent of the population of the United States.

While but a small amount of social work in the modern sense of the term is being carried on in rural areas, nevertheless service of a semi-social character has long been given in such communities. Rural churches have always done something for the unfortunate and incompetent; county and township governments have been responsible for the maintenance of homes or farms for the indigent and have administered outdoor relief. Neither the informal work of rural churches, however, nor the poor relief of local governments is now considered adequate. Accordingly, the techniques and resources developed in cities are being offered to rural leaders and slowly accepted by them. Many urban social workers also serve outlying sections, and urban-rural cooperation is doing much to meet the needs of isolated communities.

History and Present Status. Most of the organized rural social work dates from the beginning of the twentieth century. As early as 1901 the State Charities Aid Association of New York experimented in organizing county agencies for the care and protection of dependent children, and since 1908 has promoted such work comprehensively. The first nation-wide agency to call attention to rural social needs was the Commission on Country Life appointed in 1908 by President Roosevelt. Thereafter a few national agencies began to consider their rural responsibilities. The movement was greatly stimulated during the World War,

mainly through discovery of the high proportion of physical and mental deficiencies found in the young men from the country who were drafted for army service, and through the work of the American National Red Cross. At that period also interest in organized recreation increased in country districts, and public health work, including nursing, received greater support.

Within recent years the development of rural social work has been furthered principally by agencies of the following types: state boards or departments in certain commonwealths, official county boards or agencies, national voluntary organizations, and the county or local units of these organizations. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES; PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES; and PUBLIC HEALTH, STATE AGENCIES.

In several New England states, where the county cannot be organized as a unit of administration because of the prevailing system of town government, a considerable amount of effective rural social work is done by the staffs of public state agencies; those of Massachusetts and Connecticut are good examples. A group of other states have enacted comprehensive laws setting up county boards of public or child welfare. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES. Still others rely on an educational approach, whereby a state department or a voluntary state organization educates leaders, county by county, to meet some of the outstanding social needs. Perhaps 40 per cent of the states, however, may be said to have no programs of rural social work at all.

The voluntary organizations engaged in rural social work can be described here only by groups. At least five national agencies are concerned at present with an extension of social case work to rural areas. Another group gives service in organizing recreation; a third is concerned with character building; and a fourth attempts to increase health facilities and agencies. The recent programs of 26 national voluntary organizations which carry on some form of rural social work—very broadly defined—are described in Part II of the *Handbook of Rural Social Resources*, edited by Benson Y. Landis, 1928. In a few states much has been accomplished by state conferences of social work, as for example, in Wisconsin; by state councils of social agencies, as in Georgia; by the staffs of national organizations such as the Family Welfare Association of America, the Child Welfare League of America, and the American National Red Cross; also by extension workers of agricultural colleges or state universities, as in Iowa. In Vermont the Commission on Country Life, a voluntary body of 100 persons, is making a comprehensive analysis of the social resources of the state.

Local units of national organizations in the fields of health, recreation, character building, and case work are numerous in many rural areas, and their activities are not infrequently competitive. It must be recognized at once, however, that in many instances these voluntary agencies, even where competing with each other, cooperate closely with the official county agencies.

In a number of communities within recent years there have been "demonstrations," mainly in child health or in general public health work, supported by grants from foundations. As a rule these have shown that the expenditure of a few dollars per capita for various forms of public health work brings remarkable results. The chief tests of the utility of these demonstrations are still to come, for one of their problems will be to find ways of educating people to supply the funds, either through taxes or contributions, which adequate health facilities require. The rural hospital building program of the Commonwealth Fund has been welcomed by rural leaders. Grants have been made toward the cost of erecting six hospitals for rural areas in different parts of the country. *See* HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS.

There are no complete figures showing the extent of rural social work or the number of workers employed. Leroy A. Ramsdell, as chairman of the Committee on Rural

Social Work of the American Country Life Association, in the *Handbook of Rural Social Resources* already referred to, estimated that not more than one-third of the counties in the United States with rural population have one or more forms of organized rural social work; and about 2,000 persons were engaged in such work. But he adds that "it seems safe to say that probably not more than a quarter of them are adequately equipped to deal in a broadly constructive and scientific way with the social problems of the communities which they serve."

Some of the greatest problems in this field at present are these: how to arouse in rural people an awareness of their most elemental social needs, such as the needs of the sick poor; how to create a desire to deal with inefficient county and township governments; how to disseminate the knowledge that the urbanization of the countryside, in spite of its many social assets, has also serious liabilities which are expressed in certain increasing forms of human inadequacy and disorganization.

Most important are the questions of duplication and cooperation. Many counties are small and have little wealth; many will not support even one agency. The question is seriously and frequently raised whether a rural community should not have a "general social worker" rather than several workers in different fields. Some authorities think the employment of a general worker is unwise, but others contend that country people will employ such a worker or none at all. It is recommended also that because of better roads and other means of communication the unit of organization should now be a group of counties instead of a single county. Such larger units are already being served by a few agencies.

Several population groups in the United States are particularly retarded and handicapped because of their residence in isolated rural regions. Persons living in the southern Appalachian and Ozark mountain regions, for instance, have acute social needs. Good examples of social work are to be found there under religious auspices and under a few of the state governments concerned. The Conference of Southern Mountain Workers is performing a valuable function in studying the needs of the Appalachian group and calling public attention to them. The unmet needs, however, of these two groups, and also of the Negroes found in many rural areas are among the greatest problems in rural social work. *See* Southern Mountaineers and Negroes.

Mr. Ramsdell's summary of the status of rural social work, which appears in the *Handbook of Rural Social Resources* (p. 61), is still pertinent: "Rural social work is a battlefield of ideas and sentiments. Social work leaders themselves hold widely different theories as to the objectives which should be set up and as to the best methods of reaching the objectives . . . social agencies, for the most part, do not think of establishing rural social work except at the level of urban standards. . . . Rural people, on the other hand, are almost determined to have nothing to do with these new fangled city notions . . . Rural social work is chaotic and the order which is to come of it is, as yet, scarcely discernible."

Developments and Events, 1929. One of the most important events of the year in this field was the establishment of the Children's Fund of Michigan by a gift of $10,000,000 from Senator James Couzens of Detroit. Announcement was made that the Fund will assist county organizations to establish public health units and will lend aid for special demonstrations in child health and the development of a state-wide program in mental and oral hygiene. Menominee County, Mich., was selected for the first demonstration. During the year the National Social Work Council discussed the responsibilities of national agencies for rural social work. Discussions will be continued during 1930. The American Country Life Association had at its 1929 conference a well-attended section on rural social work.

Several state universities considered how they might provide more adequately for the training of rural social workers, and a group of national agencies was also very much interested in this matter. Steps were taken which may lead to thorough study of the status of rural social work, the need for special training for it, and how such training should be offered.

CONSULT: Landis, Benson Y. (editor): *Handbook of Rural Social Resources*, 1928 (a concise reference work about developments and national agencies in the field); Douglass, H. Paul: *How Shall Country Youth Be Served?*, 1926 (a study of the rural work of five character building organizations among boys and girls); Sanderson, Dwight: "Trends and Problems in Rural Social Work," in *Rural America*, January, 1930; Lundberg, Emma O.: *The County as a Unit for an Organized Program of Child Caring and Protective Work—A Study of Types of County Organizations in Various States* (Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Publication No. 169), 1926; Lumsden, L. L.: "Co-operative Rural Health Work of Public Health Service, Fiscal Year 1929," in *Public Health Reports*, December 6, 1929; Curry, H. Ida: *Public Child-Caring Work in Certain Counties of Minnesota, North Carolina, and New York*—Case Studies of the Organization of Child Care (Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor, Publication No. 173), 1927; and Nason, Wayne C.: *Rural Hospitals*—Brief Description of Types of Institutions (United States Department of Agriculture, Farmers' Bulletin No. 1,485), 1926.

BENSON Y. LANDIS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

SAFETY EDUCATION. The United States surpasses other civilized countries in its accident death rate and also in its safety educational movement. Probably the basic reason for the higher accident rate is the greater mechanization and the faster tempo of life in the United States. The automobile, of which the per capita ownership in the United States is seven times that of England or France, contributed over 31,000 of the nearly 100,000 accidental deaths in 1929. Industrial and home fatalities each numbered about 24,000, while the others were caused by drowning and miscellaneous accidents in public places. The total accidental death rate is less than it was 20 years ago, but greater than it was 10 years ago, owing to the great increase in automobile deaths. In all classifications except the latter there has been a decrease which, in the case of railroad and street-car fatalities, has exceeded 50 per cent. Up to 1926 the increase in automobile deaths was less than the increase of vehicles, but since that date it has been slightly greater. The increase in 1929 over 1928 was about 12 per cent. The ratio of non-fatal personal injuries to fatalities is about 35 in automobile cases, 130 in industry, and 150 in homes. The direct economic cost of accidents is estimated at about four billion dollars a year. This article is concerned in the main with non-industrial accidents. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS for a consideration of that topic.

History and Present Status. The safety movement in industry in the United States started about 1906. The National Safety Council began operating in 1913, chiefly along industrial lines. The distribution of safety calendars and safety films to schools by the Brooklyn Rapid Transit System in 1916 was perhaps the first of many steps taken by transportation and public utility companies to educate the public for greater safety on the streets. In Rochester in 1918 the National Safety Council and the local Chamber of Commerce conducted the first comprehensive safety program. It included a study of accident statistics; a committee organization; public meetings; publicity through newspapers, motion pictures, posters and so forth; school and playground work; study and improvement of traffic ordinances; study of street improvement; a slogan contest; and other miscellaneous activities. The National Safety Council maintains that public safety, like public health, should be organized on a community basis. Therefore,

one of its chief activities is the organizing of local safety councils in large cities—about 60 of these are now in existence—and the stimulating of similar activity in smaller cities through local chambers of commerce, motor clubs, and other civic organizations.

A national conference on street and highway safety was called in 1924 by Herbert Hoover, then Secretary of Commerce, at the request of leaders in the movement for the purpose of arousing national interest and conscience and securing greater cooperation among the interested groups. Through representative committees a series of reports and standards were compiled which may be said to constitute a national safety platform. Most important among these are the uniform vehicle code—for state adoption—and the model municipal traffic ordinance. The first and second conferences were held in 1924 and 1926, and the third is to be held in 1930. The active participants in this organization, in addition to the United States Department of Commerce, are the American Automobile Association, American Electric Railway Association, American Mutual Alliance, American Railway Association, Chamber of Commerce of the United States, National Association of Taxicab Owners, National Automobile Chamber of Commerce, National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, National Safety Council, and Motor and Equipment Association. Many other organizations and officials have given active cooperation.

Public and other schools are now one of the most powerful forces in safety education. A supplementary reader, produced under direction of the National Safety Council in 1915, was the first book devoted to school safety. Today school safety work is actively promoted by the Council's education division, the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters, American Automobile Association, numerous local motor clubs, chambers of commerce, parent-teacher associations, and other organizations. It is endorsed by the National Education Association, National Congress of Parents and Teachers, and recognized by several of the leading teacher-training institutions.

A survey conducted late in 1929 by the National Safety Council disclosed that of 1,862 cities having over 9,000,000 children enrolled in the public schools, 1,734 reported safety instruction in the elementary schools and 1,122 in the secondary schools; 154 cities had junior safety councils and 513 had junior patrols; and 315 cities had separate courses of study for safety.

Although 24,000 deaths occur annually in homes, national home safety education is still in the embryonic stage. A session is devoted to this subject at each annual safety congress; home as well as street hazards are dealt with in most school courses in safety education; a booklet, *Safety at Home,* and a few similar publications have been produced by the National Safety Council; and that body has recently organized a home safety committee to further develop this program. Increasing attention is being given to the subject by some of the leading home magazines.

Developments and Events, 1929. Among the developments of the year not already mentioned were the first nation-wide use of the radio for safety education, two series of weekly talks over the National Broadcasting System, 25 in all being arranged by the National Safety Council. Many states and cities modified their traffic laws and ordinances to conform more closely with national models. In many areas laws for the licensing of drivers, reporting of accidents, and other measures were more rigidly enforced. During the year a decided tendency was shown to raise the speed limits for automobiles. Eleven legislatures enacted laws requiring proof of financial responsibility from drivers who had had accidents or had been guilty of certain violations. Psychological studies of personal factors in traffic accidents were inaugurated at Pittsburgh and by the Ohio State University at Columbus, in addition to the continuance of similar work for the Boston Elevated Railway. A few

state legislatures imposed further restrictions on school-bus operation, or required the teaching of safety in schools. The National Congress of Parents and Teachers, through its local associations, inaugurated a national survey of conditions affecting safety in the schools, the community, and the homes.

CONSULT: Publications of the National Safety Council as follows: *Accident Facts* (annual statistical report); *Transactions of the Annual Safety Congress;* issues of *National Safety News* (industrial and general), *Public Safety*, and *Safety Education* (for schools); pamphlets on through streets, traffic courts, violations bureaus, parking, home safety and industrial safety, and other subjects; radio addresses, playlets, and posters; and special school safety publications. Also the following publications of the National Conference on Street and Highways Safety: *Reports*, 1924, 1926, and 1930; *Uniform Vehicle Code*, 1930; *Model Municipal Traffic Ordinance*, 1930; committee reports on traffic congestion, maintenance of motor vehicles, railway grade crossings, highway intersections, and other subjects. Also National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters: *Safety Education in the Secondary School*, 1929, and other school safety reports; Whitney, Albert W.: *The Inner Meaning of the Safety Movement*, 1923, and *Safety for More and Better Adventures*, 1924 (pamphlets of the National Safety Council).

SIDNEY J. WILLIAMS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

SAILORS. *See* SEAMEN.

SALARY BUYING. *See* SMALL LOANS.

SALVAGE ACTIVITIES. *See* SHELTERED WORKSHOPS.

SCHOLARSHIPS FOR CHILDREN. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE and CHILD LABOR.

SCHOOL ATTENDANCE. *See* COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

SCHOOL CENTERS. *See* COMMUNITY CENTERS.

SCHOOL COUNSELLING. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

SCHOOL COUNSELLORS. *See* VISITING TEACHERS.

SCHOOL GARDENS. *See* CHILDREN'S GARDENS.

SCHOOL HYGIENE. The term "school hygiene" is applied to all work relating to health which is carried on in public schools; it also includes the proper construction and sanitation of school buildings. Certain subdivisions of the general field are discussed elsewhere in the *Year Book* under the following headings: HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS; MOUTH HYGIENE; NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN; and there are brief references to classes for special types of physically handicapped children in the articles on TUBERCULOSIS and HEART DISEASE. This article deals with developments which affect the field as a whole, including the routine medical and nursing work by means of which communicable diseases are kept under control and physical defects are discovered with a view to correction. These services, which are now found in most cities and to a limited degree in the rural areas, usually include the following: morning inspection of children by teachers to detect early symptoms of communicable diseases; inspection at intervals by nurses to detect minor skin infections and related ailments; inspection by physicians for physical defects (the frequency of these examinations is highly variable, but for the most part they take place about three times during the school life of a child); notification to parents of the results of medical inspection and follow-up of children by nurses to secure professional attention for defects; dental examinations and prophylactic care and treatment (less extensive than medical inspection); inspection of buildings and classrooms for sanitation and sanitary facilities either by nurses or others; and immunization of children against diphtheria and vac-

cination against smallpox. In the South, immunization against typhoid fever is also encouraged, the present tendency being to begin the immunization work before the child enters school.

History and Present Status. Official status was first given to school health work in the United States when New York City, in 1892, appointed a public medical school officer. Two years later Boston appointed a physician to each of its 50 school districts to inspect children for communicable diseases. Chicago began school medical inspection in 1895 and Philadelphia in 1898; New York City in 1897 appointed 134 school physicians and in 1902, 25 school nurses; eye, ear, and throat examinations were made compulsory in the schools by Vermont in 1904; examinations to detect physical defects were inaugurated by New York City in 1905; and Massachusetts passed a law in 1906 which made vision and hearing tests in the schools compulsory.

The American School Hygiene Association was organized in 1907. By 1910, according to a survey made by the Russell Sage Foundation, there were 337 cities with school medical inspection, representing a personnel of 1,194 physicians, 371 nurses, and 48 dentists. Nineteen states had provided for school medical inspection by 1911. In 1912 the Division of School Hygiene was created in the United States Office of Education, its purposes being primarily to assemble information, issue reports, and answer inquiries relating to school hygiene and sanitation. Many publications have appeared from this source. In 1913 the holding of the Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene in Buffalo lent impetus to the movement.

The control of communicable disease in schools has been guided by state and local laws and by regulations of both health and educational authorities. The custom of closing schools at times of epidemics is gradually giving way to daily inspection of children at such times to eliminate suspicious cases. The fumigation of schoolrooms after the discovery there of a case of communicable disease is being superseded by the practice of cleaning the rooms, desks, doorknobs, and other articles with which the pupils come in contact. Providence, in 1905, was the first city to cease fumigation.

State laws on vaccination vary. Some require vaccination as a condition for entrance to school, some authorize vaccination subject to local option, others authorize health boards to adopt vaccination regulations when smallpox appears, and others definitely restrict vaccination. A study of 86 cities of populations from 40,000 to 70,000 in 1924 showed 49 cities which required vaccination for school entrance. In cities having vaccination requirements the indications were that 87 per cent of fifth grade school children were vaccinated. In cities without this requirement 56 per cent had been vaccinated. Immunization against diphtheria was first used extensively in the schools of New York City in 1919. The practice has grown widely since that date. Immunization against scarlet fever has been tried in a few schools to study its effectiveness.

The opening of the twentieth century marked the first state legislation requiring the use of mechanical ventilation in schools. New Jersey passed such a law in 1903 and New York and Ohio followed in 1905, making 30 cubic feet a minute per person the standard of air supply. At present there are laws or regulations prescribing ventilation in schools in over half the states. For the most part these prescribe the 30 cubic foot standard and also specify floor space and cubic space standards. Temperature standards are provided in a few instances.

The common drinking cup has been practically eliminated, at least from city schools. Buildings are being constructed with windows at the left or rear of pupils. Supplementary artificial lighting is common. The old-style one-room rural schoolhouse is gradually being supplanted by the consolidated school building with modern sanitary equipment.

The last ten years, especially, have wit-

nessed marked extensions of activities in the field of school hygiene. This is shown in the increase of medical, nursing, and dental personnel. In a majority of places the administration is now placed under boards of education, and to a lesser extent under municipal departments of health. The increasing participation of teachers and school administrators in health programs has likewise been a characteristic of the last decade; leading educators have stated that health should be first among the objectives of education.

Following the period of rapid expansion there has been a tendency to subject to critical analysis the school health program, its organization, objectives, and results. This promises to bring about reorganization in methods in the near future, with attention centered on quality of work and outcome rather than on extensiveness or quantity of activity. The most recent trends have emphasized the coordination of all phases of school health into a unified practice, with greater attention to the needs of the individual child.

Developments and Events, 1929. The White House Conference on Child Health and Protection included a subcommittee on Health of the School Child in its section on education. During the year the first monograph based on the four-year School Health Research conducted by the American Child Health Association was published by the Association. The report of the first annual meeting of the American Association of School Physicians was also issued.

CONSULT: Wood and Rowell: *Health Supervision and Medical Inspection of Schools*, 1927; Kerr, James: *The Fundamentals of School Health*, 1927; Keene, Charles H.: *The Physical Welfare of the School Child*, 1929; Mackenzie, Sir Leslie: *The Child at School* (Faber and Gwyer, Ltd., London), 1926; Terman and Almack: *The Hygiene of the School Child* (revised edition), 1929.

GEORGE TRUMAN PALMER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

SCHOOLS OF SOCIAL WORK. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS. Included under this title, in alphabetical order, are the local activities of Boy Rangers, Boy Scouts, Camp Fire Girls, Girl Scouts, Junior Achievement, Pioneer Youth, and Woodcraft League. For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

BOY RANGERS OF AMERICA

This organization, established in 1913, admits boys from 8 to 12 years of age; that is, from the age at which they begin to exercise initiative, up to the age which makes them eligible for membership in the Boy Scouts or related organizations. The Ranger program is based on Indian lore and upon records of pioneer days. Judicious selections are made from Indian habits, customs, games, and codes. The "great laws" of the organization contain the cardinal principles of character expressed in language intelligible to younger boys. These principles in no way conflict with the religious affiliation of the boy; they supplement and strengthen his religious faith.

Ranger lodges are organized in every state of the Union except Delaware. Over 860 lodges have been chartered, with an approximate membership of 20,000 boys. Leaders known as "guide rangers" are usually volunteers, but where these are not obtainable competent men or women are sometimes employed. While most lodges have been organized in churches, many are sponsored by service clubs, Masonic lodges, Catholic or Jewish organizations, and Boy Scout councils, about 25 groups all told sponsoring the local organizations.

To give training to leaders in Ranger activities and general handicraft work, clubs have been formed in several communities. The Ranger program has also been presented as part of the curriculum of the summer school conducted by the University of Nôtre Dame for the benefit of Catholic students in-

terested in a practical program for boys of junior age. No training courses are offered at present by the national council of the organization.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the H-Pa-Nac degree was developed and perfected. Its attainment indicates a high degree of manly behavior, neatness of appearance, punctuality at meals on the part of the Ranger, and a habit of saving from his allowance or his earnings.

For literature and other information about the organization see its listing in Part II of this volume.

EMERSON BROOKS

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA

Boy Scouts of America, Inc., represents the Boy Scout movement in the United States—a movement whose spirit and purpose can best be described in the words of the Scout Oath, renewed each week by over 600,000 boys. "On my honor, I will do my best: (1) to do my duty to God and my country, and to obey the Scout Law; (2) to help other people at all times; (3) to keep myself physically strong, mentally awake and morally straight." (See the organization's listing in Part II of this volume.)

The aim of the movement is the development of character, boys being stimulated to do things for themselves and others, and to learn the meaning of patriotism, courage, and self-reliance. Activities may vary from troop to troop and from season to season, but the fundamental principle of the organization is the close association of a small group of boys, preferably not more than 32, with an adult volunteer leader or scoutmaster who gives his time, thought, and influence to the troop for which he is responsible. Fundamental also to the movement is the series of merit badges or ranks reached through attainment in specified lines of effort.

Scout activities include the following: vocational guidance covering 90 vocations, hobbies, and general activities; camping and other outdoor activities; trail building; tree planting and reforestation in cooperation with state bureaus of forestry; conservation work and wild life protection; wilderness and pioneer camps; swimming and water safety, and moving camps (canoe, truck, or bicycle). The Scout program for health and safety includes cooperation with municipal police in traffic work, assistance in many ways at local conventions, operation of first-aid stations at state fairs and other public places, and assistance to fire departments in fire prevention and in eliminating fire hazards. The published *Minimum Standards for Boy Scout Camps* in relation to safety, sanitation, health, and recreational or study programs have set camping standards for the whole country. The official magazine of the organization, *Boys' Life*, together with local and national committees, promotes a carefully prepared reading program. Vacation activities are organized for boys who must stay at home during the summer. Service to the community includes good turns by troops and councils in cooperation with the Red Cross, churches, schools, service clubs, parent-teacher associations, and other community agencies.

At the close of 1929 Boy Scouts in America numbered 615,047, organized in 27,769 troops under 634 local councils. There were 227,501 volunteer leaders and about 1,000 full-time salaried officials. Boys become eligible for membership at the age of 12. Scout troops number from 8 to 32 boys, and are sponsored by a troop committee of at least three adult citizens. Troops do not set up buildings of their own, using instead the facilities of churches, schools, service clubs, granges, or similar institutions with which the troop has natural connections. About 50 per cent of troops are organized in connection with churches. For the promotion of the Scout movement among Catholic boys, the National Catholic Committee on Scouting has been organized. There are also Protestant and Jewish committees on scouting. In rural sections boys may be organized in farm or home patrols of from two to

eight boys, each under an adult leader. Boys in isolated districts become Lone Scouts and participate in the program through correspondence.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. The Boy Scouts of America is a volunteer movement. Professional leaders, who constitute less than 1 per cent of the total, must have had at least two years in college or its equivalent, and must take a 30-day course at the training school conducted by the national organization. Volunteer scoutmasters are expected to take training through courses conducted by local councils and may secure further training through local and regional conferences, through home study courses, or courses given in normal schools and colleges. During 1928 there were 231 students enrolled at the national training school at Briarcliff, N. Y., and 353 attended professional camp leaders' courses in all regions of the country. During that year also 33,285 courses were given for volunteer leaders and 14,743 certificates awarded, while 86 colleges gave courses for training in Scout leadership with college credits, and 182 colleges gave courses without such credit.

Developments and Events, 1929. In August a delegation of 1,300 boys and leaders attended the World Jamboree held in England, in which 60,000 boys from more than 70 lands participated. During the year there was a marked increase in camping and outdoor activities, one significant fact being that 23,000 boys were taught to swim while attending Scout camps. From the standpoint of the national organization the most significant event of the year was the adoption at its annual meeting of a five-year program of intensive development. That program emphasized the following: first, a clear understanding that Scouting is a game for boys; second, that the organization's only interest in developing and training leadership is that it should result in character building and citizenship training for boys; third, that the essential element of the Boy Scout program is the Scout Oath and Scout Law, and the ideals of service resulting from the practice of the "daily good turn."

CONSULT: *The Handbook for Boys*, 1930; *The Handbook for Scoutmasters*, 1930; *Your Home, Your Boy and Scouting*, 1930; *Public Address by President Coolidge*, 1926; West, James E.: *Social Agencies Aid the School*, 1930; and *Public Address of President Hoover*, 1930. These are all publications of the Boy Scouts of America, Inc.

JAMES E. WEST

CAMP FIRE GIRLS

The Camp Fire Girls organization was formed to supply a need felt by educators and others interested in the welfare of girls for a program of leisure-time activities for girls which should parallel but not copy the program of the Boy Scouts. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.) The national body was organized in 1911, Dr. Luther H. Gulick being elected its first president. The purpose of the organization is to conserve the ideals of the home, to further healthful and character-building activities, and to contribute to the social life of organized social groups in the community through the promotion of pageants, civic celebrations, amateur dramatics and music, social center activities, organized vacations, and tramping.

In 1929 there were 7,150 Camp Fire groups and 900 Blue Bird or junior groups, organized in 2,941 communities with 173,111 girls enrolled as members. There were 214 salaried local officials, exclusive of clerical workers, and 10,850 volunteer group leaders. Of these groups 40 per cent were organized under the auspices of schools, 20 per cent under the auspices of churches, and 40 per cent were organized independently.

Activities carried on by Camp Fire Girls are grouped under the so-called "seven crafts": home, health, hand, nature, camp, business, and citizenship. Each year the largest proportion of honors is awarded in home craft. The promotion of summer camping is a major activity. During the

summer of 1929 there were 115 Class A camps, having 25 girls or more during each session, with a total attendance of about 25,000. Guardians of groups not having access to Class A camps are pledged to arrange a period of one or two weeks' camping for the members of their groups.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. For salaried positions as Camp Fire executives, preference is given to persons who have had special training in recreation and leadership. It is desirable but not required that candidates shall have taken one of the courses in Camp Fire leadership given in connection with colleges, universities, and other educational institutions, or one of the training courses conducted by members of the national staff, either at Camp Fire camps in summer, or at Camp Fire local headquarters in winter. Forty-four of the former courses were given in 1929 and 40 of the latter. Employment as volunteer group leaders is not conditioned by attendance at Camp Fire training courses, although Camp Fire guardians are encouraged to attend such courses and they are available wherever local councils are organized.

CONSULT: *The Book of the Camp Fire Girls*, 1929 edition; *Handbook for Leaders of Camp Fire Girls*, 1928; periodicals of the organization, *Everygirl's*, and *The Guardian* (for leaders); and numerous pamphlets. These are all publications of the Camp Fire Girls.

LESTER F. SCOTT

GIRL SCOUTS

The Girl Scout organization was founded in Savannah in 1912 by Mrs. Juliette Low, a friend of Lord Baden-Powell, the founder of all scouting for youth, who encouraged and inspired the undertaking. The national organization, incorporated in 1915 as the National Council of Girl Scouts, is composed of representatives of local councils and community committees throughout the country. (See its listing and that of the World Bureau, Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, in Part II of this volume.) The purpose of the organization, as stated in its constitution, is "to help girls to realize the ideals of womanhood as a preparation for their responsibilities in the home and for service to the community. Emphasis is placed on methods of training to develop initiative, self-control, resourcefulness, and service to others, and in general the qualities of character of most value in adult life. The organization favors no creed, party, or sect; but cheerfully cooperates with any organization seeking to extend the influence for good which may be exercised by women in the home, and in religious, social, and civic affairs."

The total active membership of the Girl Scouts in 1929 was 205,834, representing all states and territories. Of that total, 179,736 were Girl Scouts and 26,098 were volunteer leaders. The 10,375 local groups—including local councils, community committees, and lone troops—represented 3,127 communities. A study made in October, 1928, of 8,060 Girl Scout troops shows that 26 per cent were affiliated with churches, 20 per cent with schools, 6 per cent with clubs and associations, and 4 per cent with community houses, settlements, libraries, and other agencies. The other 44 per cent were independent or unreported.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. As troops are in charge of volunteer leaders, known as captains, professional employment is limited to members of the national staff and workers employed by the larger local councils. Of a total of 358 local councils in 1928, 220, or 61 per cent, employed one or more professional workers. Practically all such workers, if not previously identified with the movement, are expected to take a preliminary training course before being employed, and while employed to attend further training courses and round-table conferences at frequent intervals. Each volunteer leader is urged to take a local or national training course at her earliest opportunity and repeated courses thereafter. Most local councils which have paid local directors offer

training to active and prospective troop leaders, and some require training.

Since 1927 a number of outstanding troop leaders have received scholarships provided through an appropriation from the Harmon Foundation, to allow attendance at Girl Scout national training schools. Many other leaders attend at their own expense or are sent by local councils. The national organization owns and administers a training center, Camp Edith Macy, at Briarcliff Manor, N. Y., which is in session from May to October. It also employs a staff of instructors who are at the disposal of local councils. Eleven other authorized training schools are to be held in 1930 in Girl Scout camps from New England to California, with sessions ranging from two to five weeks. In addition the national organization conducts training courses and round-table conferences for leaders at the regional conferences and at the annual convention. Introductory training courses are given under national auspices in a large number of colleges, universities, and normal schools, in both winter and summer sessions. From 1922 to 1927, 295 of these courses were given by virtue of a grant from the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial. A full report of this experiment was published.

Developments and Events, 1929. The outstanding event of the year was the adoption, by the national Girl Scout convention at New Orleans, of a five-year development plan for 1930–1935, with specific objectives for each year. A fund of $3,000,000 is to be raised to make this development possible. This plan, based upon a thorough study of the organization, involves a larger national staff, with administrative changes, and aims to extend the movement to 500,000 girls throughout the country by 1936. A study is to be made of the needs of girls not yet of scout age as a basis for a younger girl program; a study of the personal history and accomplishment records of all persons employed in girl scouting; and a study of the methods of securing and holding volunteer leaders.

CONSULT: *Girl Scout Handbook*, revised, 1929; *Blue Book of Girl Scout Policies and Procedures*, 1930 (issued annually); *Things Girl Scouts Do and the Way They Do Them*, 1930; *How to Start a Girl Scout Troop*, 1929; *Tramping and Trailing with the Girl Scouts*, 1927, and *Kettles and Campfires*, 1928. These are all publications of the Girl Scouts, Inc.

ELIZABETH KEMPER ADAMS

JUNIOR ACHIEVEMENT

Junior Achievement was founded by Theodore N. Vail, late head of the American Telephone and Telegraph Company, Senator Murray Crane, Horace A. Moses, and others in order that boys and girls in urban centers might have service and training similar to that offered by agricultural clubs to boys and girls in the agricultural sections of the country under the auspices of the United States Department of Agriculture. Junior Achievement furnishes leadership and direction to children associated in small groups or clubs for the purpose of simple hand manufacturing. The articles made are useful and artistic, and in their manufacture boys and girls gain experience in business procedure, buying and selling, principles of cooperation, marketing, management, wages, costs, how to obtain money for their corporate needs, and how to reinvest it for the continuation of business. The movement was started in 1919 as a bureau of the Eastern States Agricultural and Industrial League, and was separately incorporated under its present name in 1926.

The varieties of work undertaken are called "enterprises." Six have to do with reeds, 6 with needlecraft, 7 with textiles, 1 with food, 3 with home improvement, 10 with hammered metal, 10 with leather, 40 with woodwork, 11 with wrought iron, and 11 with electrical appliances. Great stress is laid upon business organization and sales production. To be acceptable, a Junior Achievement club must be organized as a miniature business, and for the encouragement of such organization certificates are furnished for non-legal capital stock, as well

as business manuals and suitable record books. Material for instruction is issued in the form of suggested business enterprises, and contests and exhibitions are conducted. There are now approximately 1,100 clubs in operation in 80 cities and towns, and over 10,000 boys and girls enrolled. Sixteen salaried officials are employed locally. In addition there are 759 voluntary leaders, 160 paid leaders, and 68 assistant leaders. The clubs are conducted under the auspices of local branches of the Young Men's Christian Association, Young Women's Christian Association, boys' clubs, girls' clubs, churches, community centers, settlements, and schools. Special training courses are given to leaders in local centers under the supervision of the national organization. A training institute is held in West Springfield, Mass., each June. Courses are also offered in Boston University and in the Springfield Young Men's Christian Association College for students who wish special training for work as Junior Achievement leaders.

During 1929 Junior Achievement programs were adopted by the Highlander Boy Foundation of Denver as a conspicuous feature of the work of that organization. For publications and other information about the national organization see its listing in Part II of the Year Book.

MORRIS E. ALLING

PIONEER YOUTH OF AMERICA

Pioneer Youth of America was organized in 1924 by leaders of labor and progressive educators in order to provide camp and club activities of a creative character, primarily for the children of workers. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.) The organization aims to build strong, healthy, and well-balanced bodies and minds; to cultivate, through creative activity, the power to think clearly and freely and to act courageously; to engender a love and understanding of nature; to acquaint children and youth with the social and economic problems that face the world; and to develop in them a sense of social responsibility and justice. Pioneer Youth should not be confused with the Pioneers, under the auspices of the Young Men's Christian Association, or the Young Pioneers, a communist children's organization.

A membership of persons sympathetic with the aims of the organization elects a governing board of directors, the majority of whom are trade union members. The activities carried on by the organization follow no set rule, but vary according to individual and group interests and purposes. The program includes handicrafts; hikes and trips; exercise in gymnasium and pool; dramatics, music and games; and group organization, discussion, and investigations.

During 1929 there were 207 boys and girls enrolled in two camps, and 315 children in 28 city groups or clubs in New York City, Philadelphia, and Baltimore. An executive director at headquarters, part-time directors for the branches, camp directors, and 13 paid group leaders are employed. These are in addition to volunteer leaders in the several centers. Eleven groups meet under Pioneer Youth supervision in community or labor centers, neighborhood houses, or schools. In both New York City and Philadelphia clubs of Negro children share the inter-club activities and attend camp.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. A rich personal experience, resourcefulness, social understanding, and interest in children, rather than formal academic training, are the standards required in the selection of leaders. In addition to monthly meetings three conferences are held each year in different sections for the training of camp and club leaders.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year unsatisfactory meeting places for groups in New York City led to an experimental arrangement by which central club activities and older boys' and girls' groups were conducted at the Labor Temple in East Fourteenth Street, an arrangement which will be continued during 1930. A

significant development was the interest taken by the older boys and girls in the southern textile situation. For the children of the North Carolina strikers these boys and girls collected, made, or repaired about 2,500 toys. A charter was granted during the year for the organization of a group in Denver, where work will begin in 1930. Studies in progress include a description of Pioneer Youth's six years of experimental camping, by Joshua Lieberman.

CONSULT: Coleman, McAlister: *Pioneers of Freedom*, 1929; Deardorff, Neva R.: "Pioneer Youth in Camp," in the *Survey*, October, 1929.

W. WALTER LUDWIG

WOODCRAFT LEAGUE OF AMERICA

Believing that woodcraft, the first pursuit of man, was an interest to be particularly cultivated in childhood, Ernest Thompson Seton in 1902 founded the Woodcraft Indians and used the ideal redman as its model. In 1916 it was incorporated as the Woodcraft League of America, Inc., with Mr. Seton as chief and with Field Councils in each important locality responsible for local activities, and it has since become a worldwide movement, with functioning groups in Europe, Asia, and even Africa. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.)

The Woodcraft League aims to set before youth an ideal figure, physically strong, dignified, courteous, self-controlled, happy in helping, equipped for emergencies, wise in the ways of the woods, in touch with men of affairs, of such all-round development that he can quickly be made a specialist in any needy place, and filled with the religion that consists not of mere observances, but of a spirit which makes one desired and helpful here today. The Woodcraft embodies the Four Fold Way of Life, that is, development along the pathways of the body, mind, spirit, and service; it takes as its basis the primitive of each country, refined and adapted for present-day use; it works primarily with recreation and teaches fun not bought with money. The Woodcraft is the only organization that takes in both sexes and all ages, with a special program for children under 12, for grown-ups over 18, and for the family as a unit. The Woodcraft definitely recognizes and uses the developmental instincts during the whole period of growth. In brief, the Woodcraft is the only organization dictated to the grown-ups by the children.

Training courses in woodcraft procedure are given by the national office and also by the field councils. There is each year a four-day intensive course at Mr. Seton's home, at which the members camp and learn by doing. There are also conducted two training courses at the American Museum of Natural History in New York City, one in the spring and one in the fall. These latter courses are offered one or two nights a week, usually for eight weeks.

CONSULT: Seton, Ernest Thompson: *Blazes on the Trail*, 1929, *Lifecraft or Woodcraft*, 1929, *Rise of the Woodcraft Indians*, 1929, and *Message of the Redman*, to be published in 1930; also the official handbook of the organization, *The Birch Bark Roll*, and its supplement, *The Scroll of the Little Lodge*, both issued periodically.

ERNEST THOMPSON SETON

SEAMEN. The term "seamen" as used in this article includes only men in the service of the merchant marine. For articles relating in part to men in the naval service, *see* VETERANS and YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS. Seamen present several social problems. The first is that of homelessness with its resulting loneliness. Social agencies endeavor to meet that need by providing rooms for reading, writing, and games; hotel and club accommodations; visitation on vessels; religious privileges; educational and entertainment programs; loan libraries on vessels; tours to places of local interest in port cities; and outdoor athletics and other competitive games in such places. A second problem is that of seasonal employment, since more ships are in service in the summer than in winter. That condition is partially met by

providing temporary employment on shore. Seamen also have marked health hazards due to their irregular habits, their frequent changes of climate, and their periods of unemployment followed by unusually heavy work. The industry, moreover, has a high accident rate. The efforts of social agencies for sick or injured seamen are reinforced by the United States Public Health Service; and by state, municipal, and private hospitals.

In the beginning work for seamen was mainly the giving of moral and spiritual help. The Boston Society for the Religious and Moral Improvement of Seamen, the first such body in the United States, was organized in 1812. In 1817 the Marine Bible Society of New York was organized. This was later merged with the New York Bible Society, which is still active in distributing copies of the Scriptures among seamen. In 1818 the Society for the Promotion of the Gospel Among Seamen (The New York Port Society) was organized under non-denominational Protestant auspices, and in 1820 the Mariner's Church was founded. The third decade of the century saw the organization of port societies and mariner's churches in the following cities: in Boston and Charleston, S. C., in 1823; in Philadelphia in 1824; in Baltimore in 1826; and in New Orleans and Portland, Me., in 1829. In 1828 the American Seamen's Friend Society, under non-denominational Protestant auspices, was organized to minister to the welfare of American seamen in foreign ports. In 1842 it undertook local work also, and opened a sailors' home in New York City. In 1859 it began placing loan libraries on board ships, and in 1908 opened the first modern home and institute for seamen. In its new building single rooms took the place of the dormitory and a restaurant replaced the boarding table. In addition to bedrooms a church is provided; also a swimming pool, game rooms, baggage rooms, and separate quarters for the licensed personnel. In 1843 the Protestant Episcopal Church Missionary Society for Seamen in New York was organized. The work of that society, which is now the Seamen's Church Institute of New York, was for many years housed on a floating church moored to the shore, but in 1914 it opened its large building on the waterfront. An annex was opened in 1929. This is at present the largest and most comprehensive institution for seamen in the world. It has sleeping accommodations for 1,500 men. During 1929 it furnished 417,612 lodgings, served 335,409 meals, gave employment to 8,637 men, and in its banking department received $607,364 for deposit or transmission abroad.

Social work for seamen is most extensively developed in the port of New York, but similar facilities are also to be found in Baltimore, Boston, Buffalo, Charleston, Duluth, Galveston, Gloucester, Houston, Jacksonville, New Haven, New Orleans, Newport, Newport News, Norfolk, Port Arthur, San Francisco, San Pedro, Savannah, Seattle, Tacoma, and Tampa. These activities are sometimes under the auspices of a particular Protestant denomination, and sometimes under the auspices of the Salvation Army, or the Young Men's Christian Association. On the Great Lakes, seamen's rests are maintained by the Lake Carriers' Association, an employers' organization. The needs of certain foreign language groups are met in part by institutions carried on by the Lutheran Church. Reading rooms and hotel accommodations for German, Scandinavian, and Dutch seamen are maintained by it in many ports. In New York and Boston there are reading rooms for Roman Catholic seamen under the auspices of that church. Supplementary social work for seamen is carried on in New York by the Society for the Relief of Destitute Children of Seamen, and the Seamen's Branch of the Legal Aid Society.

An outstanding development of the year in New York City was the agreement of the American Seamen's Friend Society, the Seamen's Christian Association, and the Young Men's Christian Association, to unite in erecting a thoroughly equipped seamen's

house on the North River waterfront, to be under the management of the Young Men's Christian Association.

CONSULT: The American Seamen's Friend Society: *Notes of Fifty Years' Efforts for the Welfare of Seamen*, 1878; American Merchant Marine Library Association: *Seaman's Handbook for Shore Leave* (third edition), 1928; Healey, James C.: "The Seaman in New York and the Agencies Here to Serve Him," in the New York *Welfare Council Bulletin*, March, 1929; Stewart, Annabel M.: *Seamen with Venereal Disease in the Port of New York* (to be published in 1930); also annual reports of national agencies in this field; and periodicals—*The Sailors' Magazine and Seamen's Friend* (American Seamen's Friend Society), and *The Lookout* (Seamen's Church Institute of New York).

JAMES C. HEALEY

For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 596.

SECOND GENERATION PROBLEMS. *See* IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES.

SEPARATED FAMILIES. *See* IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES.

SERVICE CLUBS. *See* BUSINESS MEN'S SERVICE CLUBS.

SETTLEMENT LAWS. *See* TRANSPORTATION OF CLIENTS IN SOCIAL WORK.

SETTLEMENTS. *See* SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS.

SEX EDUCATION. *See* SOCIAL HYGIENE.

SHELTERED WORKSHOPS are conducted not only for the vocational and physical rehabilitation of men and women handicapped by accidents, old age, or disease, but also to provide work for widows, the homeless, and at times the unemployed. They not only serve their clients, but are laboratories for developing methods of care and supervision that may be adopted by large industries. A development of this character during 1929 indicates that many handicapped persons may thus be rehabilitated without the assistance of philanthropic organizations; but no matter how effectively this is done, there will continue to be need for workshops under private social auspices, either independent or, as they often are, closely affiliated with municipal and state departments. *See* REHABILITATION.

History and Present Status. A few workshops have been in existence for more than 15 years, but most of them were organized since the World War. This is particularly true of shops for the blind, and for cardiac or mental or problem cases. *See* THE BLIND, TUBERCULOSIS, and MENTAL HYGIENE.

There is wide variation in purpose, housing, equipment, and auspices under which workshops are conducted, as well as in the client's length of stay. So-called curative or convalescent workshops usually have the shortest period of employment, while shops for the aged and blind provide permanent care. Some admit patients for a limited period, such as three months, while others consider patients as in need of temporary employment, even though, as with the tuberculous, the average stay may be from two to three years. Emphasis varies with the type of handicap the workshop is equipped to serve. Some are concerned primarily with physical or mental rehabilitation; others with vocational or trade re-training. Goodwill Industries and the Salvation Army conduct workshops in many large cities to provide work for the unemployed, the temporary homeless, or the unemployable.

For its guidance the group of sheltered workshops in New York City in 1929 adopted the following definitions: "A sheltered workshop is a haven for those who find it difficult to carry on in competitive employment, temporarily or permanently. Sheltered employment is temporary when the prognosis for improvement in the condition of the patient while at work indicates that within a

time reasonable for his disease or handicap he may be graduated into normal industry. Sheltered employment is permanent when the prognosis or the experience of the patient at the workshop indicates the need for sheltered work conditions for an indefinite period."

The history of many workshops is the same —a trial period, with much experimentation and groping, followed by a period of painful, slow growth. A workshop is usually one of the activities of a larger agency, and for a long time is considered a minor or experimental activity. It is developed to meet needs not provided for in the community or considered essential to the agency functioning in its larger field. The usual small budget and poor equipment often result in waste, unnecessary strain on the patients, and even premature failure. Some of these workshops are housed in run-down buildings suggesting fire hazards, while others occupy model structures built or equipped for their purposes. Growth of the movement has been haphazard, with much confusion as to purpose, and with overlapping or avoidable competition in the sale of products.

With the blind, the cardiac cases, or the tuberculous, it is frequently hard to differentiate between patients who require temporary and those in need of permanent sheltered employment. The result is that workshops established for temporary employment often find themselves with patients who may carry on for years under sheltered conditions, but probably would break down if forced into ordinary industry. Some workshops for rehabilitative patients reserve a definite portion of their capacity for permanent cases.

Where workshops are conducted by or affiliated with family welfare agencies the service is part of family care. With shops under independent auspices the procedure varies greatly. Rarely is a case worker employed. Nurses, shop managers, or assistants are expected to combine the function of case worker with their other duties. The friction and misunderstanding between workshops and family welfare agencies is growing less each year.

There is a dearth of information regarding the number of workshops in this country, the clients served, and their experiences. The extent of the activity in New York is indicated by a recent monthly report to the Welfare Council of that city. Ten workshops were listed which served 705 men and women. In this four-week period, working 81,387 hours, these patients earned $17,355. Many problems exist, common to all workshops, on which light is needed. Many workshops are repeating the mistakes of the older ones, and few are cooperating.

The legislation of 1929 which most directly affected workshops is that which extended the list of compensable diseases, and that which permitted the granting of mothers' aid to the dependent children of tuberculous persons. In one city such aid is continued while the patients are at the workshop.

CONSULT: Crane, A. G.: *Education for the Disabled in War and Industry, Army Hospital Schools*, 1921; Segsworth, W. E.: *Retraining Canada's Disabled Soldiers*, includes bibliography (J. de-Labroquerie Taché, Ottawa), 1920; Great Britain, Ministry of Labour: *Reports upon Openings in Industry Suitable for Disabled Sailors and Soldiers*, 1917; Hall and Buck: *Handicrafts for the Handicapped*, 1916; Hochhauser, Edward: "The Story of the Altro Work Shops," in *New England Journal of Medicine*, November 8, 1928; Leavitt, M. A.: *Handicapped Wage Earners* (New York Jewish Social Service Association), 1928; Federal Board for Vocational Education: bulletins and other publications; Institute for the Crippled and Disabled: reports and publications, and issues of *Thumbs Up!*

EDWARD H. HOCHHAUSER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 597.

SHELTERS. *See* DETENTION HOMES.

SHEPPARD-TOWNER ACT. *See* MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE.

SHUT-IN SOCIETIES. *See* SOCIETIES FOR FRIENDLY SERVICES.

SMALL LOANS. Many families have need for small emergency loans to meet crises arising most frequently from illness, death, unemployment, or accumulated debts. Fully 85 per cent of the population are without bank credit and must turn to specialized financial institutions which make small loans on a basis which the average borrower can meet. A recent study in New Jersey estimates that one out of every five families in the state borrowed from small loan companies in 1929. The demand for small loans has been increased in recent years by the broad extension of credit to consumers, particularly by instalment sales. To help meet payments when due, resort is often made to temporary loans. Where adequate loan facilities are not available, and these localities are many, small borrowers must turn to the loan sharks. Most of the money supplied by them bears interest at 20 per cent per month.

Small loans are most frequently made on security of the following types: (a) Pledges of jewelry or other property left with the lender; (b) assignments of wages to the lender; (c) notes endorsed jointly by the borrower and two others whose financial standing is satisfactory to the lender; or (d) chattel mortgages—usually on household furniture or automobiles.

In the order of their estimated total business the principal financial agencies which make small loans are: (a) Unlicensed lenders (loan sharks) who accept or demand many different kinds of security; (b) pawnbrokers, whose loans are always on security of property left with them, and whose rates where not controlled by law are ordinarily high; (c) personal finance companies—also known as industrial lenders, licensed lenders, family finance companies, or small loan companies—agencies which loan in amounts of $300 or less on the security usually of chattel mortgages or less often on wage assignments, the loans being made usually under the authority of the small loan law, to be referred to presently, and similar statutes existing in 25 states; (d) industrial banks—of which the Morris Plan banks are typical—which combine the small loan business, up to $5,000, with the sale of investment certificates purchasable in instalments; (e) personal loan departments of banks through which loans up to an ordinary maximum of $2,000 are made on co-maker notes as the usual security; (f) credit unions—cooperative organizations for systematic savings and loans to members on notes secured by endorsements of two or more co-makers and shares of the borrower in the organization; (g) remedial loan societies—agencies promoted on a semi-philanthropic basis, usually with accepted limitation of dividends, which make loans similar to those of commercial lenders but at lower rates and usually also on the same security (pawn, chattel, co-makers, and so forth).

The maximum rates fixed by the usual small loan laws vary from 2½ per cent to 3½ per cent a month. The rates actually charged by the different kinds of institutions show wide and overlapping variations. In the following list these institutions are arranged roughly in accordance with the simple interest rates charged:

Institutions	*Rate Per year Per cent*
Credit unions	6–18
Personal loan departments	9–25
Remedial loan societies	12–30
Industrial banks	19–35
Personal finance companies	30–42
Pawn shops	30–120
Unlicensed lenders	240–1000

The most recent development in this field is the personal loan departments of banks. The National City Bank in New York, after its first year's operation in 1929, reported that 71,843 persons were borrowing $25,033,000 at the year end. The average loan was $349. The non-specialized loans of such banks represent small loans made as accommodations to favored customers.

The estimated volume of small loans in 1929 was $2,592,500,000, representing an

estimated 25 per cent increase over 1928. This total is made up as follows:

Groups	*Estimated Total Loans Advanced*
Unlicensed lenders (loan sharks)	$750,000,000
Pawnbrokers	600,000,000
Personal finance companies	500,000,000
Industrial banks	360,000,000
Commercial banks	
Loans by their small loan departments	40,000,000
Non-specialized loans	150,000,000
Credit unions	62,500,000
Remedial loan societies	60,000,000
Miscellaneous	70,000,000
Total	$2,592,500,000

Because the maximum legal interest rate in most states is 6 to 8 per cent a year, most institutions which specialize in small loans are not able to operate legally without legislation permitting higher rates for loans of this type. Some states have special acts permitting such higher rates, these being applicable to pawnbrokers, industrial banks, or credit unions. Twenty-five states, however, have general small loan laws[1] prescribing the maximum rates which may be charged on loans under $300, regardless of the security, if they are not specifically covered by special loan laws. Most general laws are patterned on the so-called "uniform small loan law," which provides for the licensing and bonding of such money lenders and their supervision by state banking departments, and includes drastic penalties for violations. The personal loan departments of banks are the only group of those here mentioned not yet subject to special legislation or to general small loan laws.

Social activities in this field began in 1859, when the first remedial loan society was established—the Collateral Loan Company of Boston. There are now 27 such societies, united since 1909 in a national organization.

[1] Arizona, Connecticut, Florida, Georgia, Illinois, Indiana, Iowa, Louisiana, Maine, Maryland, Massachusetts, Michigan, Missouri, New Hampshire, New Jersey, New York, Ohio, Oregon, Pennsylvania, Rhode Island, Tennessee, Utah, Virginia, West Virginia, and Wisconsin.

To give assistance to legislative programs and other protective activities in the field, the Department of Remedial Loans of the Russell Sage Foundation was organized in 1910. It drafted the original uniform small loan law in 1916, and has modified that law three times in later years to meet developments in the operations of loan agencies. A direct result of the general small loan laws was the growth of personal finance companies. These are united in the American Association of Personal Finance Companies, an organization which has been joined with other agencies in promoting protective laws in this field and in enforcing their provisions.

One of the most recent attempts to circumvent the restrictions of small loan laws is the practice known as salary buying. The lender makes a pretended purchase at a discount of wages which have been earned but not yet paid, and for this the borrower signs a document very similar to a bill of sale. Amendments to the uniform small loan law have specifically extended its application to this practice, and such extension has been held constitutional wherever tested in courts of last resort. Another recent development is the chain of loan shark organizations. Acting in concert, these concerns are incessantly at work attempting to repeal regulatory legislation and attacking the constitutionality of small loan laws.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year there were 134 bills affecting small loans introduced in 20 legislatures. Of these bills, 29 became laws. The most important trends indicated were the marked extension of credit union laws, the changes of interest rates—usually reductions—and the regulation of salary purchases. Judicial decisions were rendered in three states which sustained laws for the protection of borrowers. In Virginia anti-"salary-buying" legislation was upheld by the highest court. In Louisiana the constitutionality of the uniform law was sustained, and in Kansas the Supreme Court held that a loan shark office was a common

nuisance and could be enjoined. Loan shark victims in several communities found relief during the year, particularly in New York where several prison sentences resulted from the attorney general's loan shark drive; in Nebraska, where the attorney general, acting at the instance of the Junior Chamber of Commerce of Omaha, instituted *quo warranto* proceedings against incorporated, high-rate loan concerns; in Paducah, Ky., where the activities of 24 loan sharks were halted by a Borrowers' Protective Committee; in Iowa, where the Department of Banking utilized the provisions of the state small loan law to eradicate salary-purchasers; and in St. Paul, where an anti-loan shark campaign was actively prosecuted by the Community Chest.

Important studies completed during the year include two prepared for the New Jersey Industrial Lenders Association. The first of these was made by W. I. King and relates to the small loan situation in New Jersey, presenting the most comprehensive picture to date of small loan borrowers, their social and economic status, reasons for borrowing, size, duration, and costs of loans, and the necessity for regulation. The second study was made by Pace, Gore, and McLaren, accountants and auditors, and is an expert analysis of the costs, losses, and profits of the licensed loan companies in New Jersey. Studies in progress but not completed during the year include several statistical, legal, and historical studies of the small loan business under the direction of Louis N. Robinson, and a report on mass finance to the Twentieth Century Fund by its director, Evans Clark. This is the first general study of credit to consumers and contains a critical analysis of all agencies extending it.

CONSULT: Ryan, F. W.: *Usury and Usury Laws*, 1924; Raby, R. Cornelius: *Regulation of Pawnbroking*, 1924; Bergengren, Roy F.: *Cooperative Banking*, 1923 (under revision in 1929); Herzog, P. W.: *The Morris Plan* of *Industrial Banking*, 1928; an unsigned article, "The Uniform Small Loan Law," in the *Harvard Law Review*, March, 1929; Robinson and Stearns: *Ten Thousand Small Loans*, 1930; and Ham, Robinson, and Nugent: *A Credit Union Primer*, 1930.

LEON HENDERSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 597.

SOCIAL CASE WORK means the application of a certain method in its appropriate field of operation. Use of the term to designate the method is usually clear enough. The field of its applicability, however, is large and complex and susceptible to the use within it of many other methods. Thus it is possible in referring to the field of social case work to include within its scope organized areas in which routine or group procedures take the place of social case method. For example, relief may be given or children may be placed in institutions or foster homes without study of each situation so met, and without due weighing of ends to be attained. The group teaching, discipline, and recreation supervision of children are often included as a part of "child welfare," although that term is commonly used to name a field of social case work. *See* CHILD WELFARE.

In the present volume the term "social case work" is used in the broad sense to refer to the whole field in which the social case method is potentially applicable.

The distinguishing characteristic of case method is that it proceeds by particularizing individual instances of the problem of the profession, whatever the profession may be. In social work case method has been fairly well developed in actual practice with specific problems, and it is in process of being integrated into a more inclusive, general, and fundamental pattern of procedure.

The major specific problems in treatment of which social case method has developed may be roughly classified as threat to the family through individual and community inadequacies, dependency of children deprived of their own families, delinquency, and the personal disabilities connected with physical and mental disease and defect. It

is apparent that all these problems are interrelated, and also that they relate to the problems of the learned professions. In the wider sense all the professions are social work, since they serve purposes of human society. Even in the narrower, technical sense each of the established professions, law, medicine, psychiatry, education, the ministry, has its "social component," without which its own particular case work is incomplete. Each deals with a clientele of human beings, and human beings are not to be dealt with by a "case" method without some understanding of the social environment conditioning them.

This actual situation has led to the development of social case work from many foci, each contributing some form and some special interest according to its location. The points of origin within the older professions are additional to the points at which social case work grows up in the community under its own auspices.

The field of social case work may then be divided according to administration into two parts, the one including the independent organizations, the other those administered as parts of institutions, such as hospital, court, and school. A report published recently by the American Association of Social Workers under the title *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific*, to which later reference is made, uses the terms "mural" and "extra-mural" to designate these divisions, and for lack of better those terms may be used here.

Within the extra-mural group the field is divided into family welfare, child welfare, work for the homeless, and others. Among other activities included within the "mural" group are visiting teaching, medical social work, psychiatric social work, probation, parole, vocational guidance, and girls' protective work. (See articles under these titles.)

The fundamental social case work methods of study, diagnosis, and treatment began to develop when the charity organization movement enlisted the interest of its promoters and practitioners in the causes and the prevention of dependency. These causes are complex and reside both in the individual and in society. The industrial system tends to uneven distribution of wealth. But bad physical health, mental disease and defect, and anti-social behavior also interfere with earnings. Such inadequacies require study in their relation to actual and potential dependency. They are also under study in their own right in the medical, legal, and other professions. Social case work thus tends to broaden its scope to include some of the interests of these professions and to relate them not only to the social pathology of dependency, but to the whole subject of the "adjustment between man and his social environment." (*What Is Social Case Work?* by Mary E. Richmond.)

Because the other professions, as already mentioned, have also developing interests in personality and social environment as they relate to sickness, mental disease, crime, and so forth, there has followed a combination of social case work and other professional practice, and wherever this occurs a contribution is made on the one hand from social case work to the related profession, and on the other hand from that profession to social case work.

Thus within the past 25 years medical, psychiatric, legal, and educational social case work have grown up, using the original study and treatment methods with new interpretations. Also family and child welfare have enriched their original methods not only by their own exercises in support of family and child life, but also by the adaptation of much knowledge derived from allied professions, with which the extra-mural group is in contact directly and through the mural colleagues.

This diversity of fields of social case work had reached a point of considerable development when the American Association of Social Workers was formed in 1921. Social case workers were conscious of the problems of their seeming specialization. Their general and common foundation was obscure. To this day it is not adequately formulated and perhaps it does not need to be.

There are, however, practical questions, chiefly of division of labor and of education, which require to be answered according to some accepted principles.

An attempt to arrive at some usable principles is set forth in *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific.* This report was prepared by a committee of a group called the Milford Conference (from the place in Pennsylvania where the earliest meetings were held), composed of representatives of national social case work agencies. It was endorsed by this group and published in 1929 by the American Association of Social Workers. The main thesis of the report is that social case work is always concerned with failure of social self-maintenance, this being understood to mean not economic self-maintenance only, but the whole of one's ability to organize one's own social activities. Procedures common to social case work in all its fields are outlined. The report claims for social case work some common knowledge and an underlying philosophy of values and of relation between practitioner and client. An attempt is made to enumerate some of the specific differences between the fields of social case work and to say whether these are exclusive differences or differences of emphasis only. The question of organization is discussed and there is a section on education.

It is impossible to say how well this statement may represent the opinion of social case workers generally. Probably the main contention as to a general groundwork would be widely accepted. Some persons believe that when all other professions and industry have fully developed their social components there will be no field left for social work, but this point of view is uncommon among social case workers themselves.

The question of perhaps greatest interest to social case workers is that of future development. Is it to be in the direction of greater generalization, or of greater specialization, or will there be development along both general and special lines? As social case workers think on this question, so they will determine their functions and divide their labor.

The present period may be characterized as one in which the family welfare agency alone assumes responsibility for all problems presented by families in their care, and any other agency assumes responsibility for a particular client whose case it has accepted and for the client's family in so far, and only in so far, as it is necessary for the adequate treatment of the client. Those who believe that progress lies in generalization see this practice as better than confining the attention to the client alone, but less good than a practice on the part of all agencies of accepting all the problems of the client's family as within their province to deal with. On this principle the several forms of social case work would differ only in character of the initial need which brings families to agencies and in the equipment they possess for rendering certain specialized services.

Opposed to this is the idea that although generalization needs to go much farther than it has yet gone, specialization must also develop; that there is in social case work as in other professions too much ground to be covered to allow one practitioner to encompass it all; and that even within a single family complicated problems will continue to necessitate the services of more than one agency. Unity must then be achieved as now, if at all, by coordination of services on each case, one or another taking the lead as is expedient.

In support of this forecast it is pointed out that medical, legal, and educational institutions are not likely to become centers of work which does not serve the primary purpose of the institution. It is argued also that while general or "undifferentiated" social case work is developing in rural communities, yet in the more elaborately organized communities there is increasing specialization, an important part of which is the effort of family social case workers to define their own special function.

Justification for division of labor here, as upon other occasions, is found in finer expert-

ness and economy of effort. Intricacies of procedure and subtleties of temper in old-established institutions—court, reformatory, school, hospital—become comfortable media to social workers only after long habituation. It would be wasteful, if possible, to compel all social workers to acquire such habituation. A few in each institution can serve the general community social case workers as well as workers in other institutions. The technique of close collaboration is slowly being learned on both sides. Where there has been good grounding in basic social work function and philosophy the art of collaboration is not difficult. Some "surrender of self-sufficiency" by each results in fuller solidarity in the ranks of social workers and fuller service to their clients.

CONSULT: Richmond, Mary E.: *Social Diagnosis*, 1917, and *What is Social Case Work*, 1922; Sheffield, Ada E.: *The Social Case History*, 1920; Townsend, Harriet: *Social Work a Family Builder*, 1926; de Schweinitz, Karl: *The Art of Helping People Out of Trouble*, 1924; and Milford Conference: *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific, An Outline* (American Association of Social Workers), 1929.

MARY ANTOINETTE CANNON

For National Agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 597.

SOCIAL CENTERS. *See* COMMUNITY CENTERS.

SOCIAL HYGIENE is a term used in the United States to cover a wide range of activities. Included are the development of sex education in relation to character education, combating the venereal diseases, eradication of commercialized prostitution, and the promotion of environmental conditions and recreational facilities for the protection of youth and the fostering of normal family life and relations. Elsewhere reference is made to special parts of this field. *See* VENEREAL DISEASES. The following statement is limited primarily to the educational and sociologic aspects of sex problems.

History and Present Status. The social hygiene movement goes back at least 50 years in this country and even farther in England. By a series of mergers, beginning about 20 years ago, the national agencies concerned have been brought together in a single organization—the American Social Hygiene Association, affiliated with state and local agencies throughout the country. In many localities independent societies or committees still exist for particular purposes —a committee on law enforcement, for example, or a public health council with a venereal disease division, or agencies working separately on sex education, protective measures, sex delinquency, or problems of family relations. The national association serves as a clearing house to bind these interests together.

The outstanding evidences of recent progress on the educational side of the social hygiene movement are three: (1) A new emphasis is being placed on the need of adults for guidance in relation to marriage and parenthood; (2) the church and its affiliated bodies are actively participating in programs for equipping youth with an understanding of sex, and with an appreciation of conduct adapted to their best interest and that of their children; (3) progressive educators have accepted responsibility for sex education as part of a general program of education and character training, and are applying to that task the principles which the social hygiene movement has demonstrated to be thoroughly practicable.

Family consultation services have begun to appear; a few of these have been carefully planned and may be expected to yield important results in the next few years. Courses on the family are being given in several universities and colleges, and series of lectures on the subject have been arranged under the auspices of women's clubs and other social and civic agencies. A beginning has been made toward coordination of these efforts.

National social agencies, national church boards, city federations of churches, and

individual churches are training leaders for their sex education work and are writing texts to fit their particular needs. They have held many father-son and mother-daughter conferences. Round table discussion groups dealing with marriage and related problems have increased. In schools and colleges active progress is evident. Extension courses for teacher-training and parent-training in sex education are now well established in several states and many cities.

As the number of trained teachers increases, their influence is seen in the systematic inclusion of sex education in subjects already taught. Thus the significant advances have not been in sex education by itself, but in the introduction of its content in courses on biology, nature study, sociology, history, and English literature. This is sound pedagogy and wise policy as well.

The church and its institutions now complement these other agencies more effectively and with better understanding. The problem of translating ideals and ethics into conduct has been studied and tested. Increasingly marriage and the family have been placed frankly before religious groups for analysis and development, and the results are reassuring. As an institution the home is receiving a new vote of confidence; but it has become apparent that old conceptions, definitions, laws, and conventions must be carefully considered and must be revised to meet the realities of present-day life. Church leaders as well as educators and leaders in social work have aroused their members more successfully to a realization that this constructive side of social hygiene is even more important than programs against commercialized prostitution, sex delinquency, and the venereal diseases.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the established activities were continued as usual. The national organization reports a total of 1,431 lectures on social hygiene subjects, attended by 210,455 persons. In addition the United States Public Health Service and state health departments provided over 2,800 lectures and displays of films, exhibits, and slides, with about 300,000 attendance. Local voluntary agencies probably reached as many more by similar means. Among the national and local organizations which carried on social hygiene activities during the year were such bodies as the National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Women's Christian Temperance Union, National League of Women Voters, National Organization for Public Health Nursing, Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, rotary clubs, and fraternal orders.

The Journal of Social Hygiene in 1929 had a monthly circulation of approximately 4,000. More than 200,000 pamphlets were distributed by the national organization, and bibliographies and special reading lists were used by reading and study groups in every state in the Union.

Some of the publications issued during the year, in addition to medical and public health pamphlets, were entitled: *From Boy to Man, Training and Guidance in Recreation, Marriage and Divorce, What is Happening to the American Family?, Treatment of the Infections, Social Hygiene and the Negro, Marriage and Propagation Among Criminals, Nursing Problem in a Social Hygiene Program, A Police Department's Social Hygiene Activities, Quackery in Relation to Venereal Diseases.*

Some of the most valuable studies of the year in the social hygiene field combined medical and social data. Thus a comprehensive study in New York City of 1,000 seamen who were infected with syphilis or gonorrhea provided much needed data on social service, recreation, and other vitally essential factors in the social hygiene of sailors and other migratory groups.

During 1929 the largest undertaking of its kind hitherto attempted was carried to a successful conclusion—the Philadelphia social hygiene survey, as part of the hospital and health survey of that city under the general direction of Dr. Haven Emerson. It included a study of educational, legal, protective, medical, and informational activities

in this field and was published as part of the general survey.

The continued support given during the year by a group of lay donors to the Committee on Research in Syphilis was a significant fact, indicating that these donors recognized the importance of discovering and testing improved methods of diagnosis and treatment in relation to syphilis.

Four comprehensive studies of roadhouse conditions were made during the year. These were undertaken by local organizations in three states, and by the state health officer in a fourth state, in cooperation with the research staff of the national association. Those studies, which are believed to picture the best as well as the worst conditions, indicated that prostitution had not yet gained general foothold in roadhouses. It was apparent, however, that such resorts were often used by both young and older people as places in which to get drunk, to dance indecently, and in a few cases apparently to secure illicit sex relations. During the year the national organization and the New York Welfare Council continued to gather and tabulate information about the leisure-time interests, activities, and home life of adolescent girls, with special emphasis on the alleged breakdown of the home and its loss of influence.

In quite a different field was the study of the health of the Chippewa Indians made by the Minnesota Department of Health, the American Social Hygiene Association, the Minnesota Public Health Association and the United States Bureau of Indian Affairs. A complete report of the survey will be published in 1930 by the Bureau of Indian Affairs. A similar study among the Klamath Indians (Oregon) was made and published in 1928.

Investigation of the activities of quacks and charlatans treating syphilis and gonorrhea was an important activity in 1929. Several hundred illegal practitioners, operating and advertising in more than 20 states, were investigated and selected cases reported to appropriate state or city officials. In an encouraging proportion of cities it was found possible to force these men to close their offices.

CONSULT: Flexner, Abraham: *Prostitution in Europe*, 1914; Galloway, T. W.: *The Sex Factor in Human Life*, 1921; Groves, E. R.: *Social Problems of the Family*, 1927; Snow, W. F.: *Venereal Diseases—Their Medical, Nursing, and Community Aspects*, 1924; and files of *Social Hygiene*, published by the American Social Hygiene Association (contains current bibliographies).

WILLIAM F. SNOW

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 597.

SOCIAL INSURANCE. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS, OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES, OLD AGE PENSIONS, and UNEMPLOYMENT.

SOCIAL RESEARCH under the auspices of agencies responsible for social practice has developed slowly. Interested primarily in direct service and community programs, local agencies have not employed the rigidly controlled methods of scientific research for the purpose of evaluating the efficiency of their practices and techniques, and for the analysis of the social problems with which they are concerned. Functional agencies, nationally organized and farther removed from direct service, have more extensively applied accepted research methods. Strictly defined, research is the application of systematic methods to the differentiation, collection, tabulation, and interpretation of social phenomena, and the organization of the results into data which add to the established body of knowledge. Its purpose is the creation of new or revised viewpoints and standards, or the improvement of skills and processes. In social work similar ends have been obtained through empirical judgments of competent practitioners whose conclusions have been transmitted, scrutinized, and evaluated by means of discussions, organized conferences, and publications.

How nearly such informal contributions

and the numerous and popular reports, surveys, and social studies approach research rather than unsupported opinion depends upon the validity of the methods used and the logic of the conclusions reached. In any event these by-products of the social workshop have been fertilizing and transforming social work. At the same time, however, generalizations and conclusions of scientific fields related to social work, and particularly of the academic social sciences, have been contributing to the underlying philosophies as well as to the methods of social work. An important part of the discoveries and hypotheses of the biological, economic, psychological, and historical fields have been impinging upon the social worker, both through his academic training and through the continuing process of informal education. This article, though recognizing the importance of the informal contributions referred to, must of necessity deal largely with those forms of research which have been consciously organized and therefore are more readily identified as research projects. Other articles in this volume consider particular varieties of social research. *See* CHILD DEVELOPMENT RESEARCH, SOCIAL RESEARCH IN INDUSTRY, and RESEARCH IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION. The present article deals with the subject generally.

Social Research as a University Function. Social science research, largely developed in this country as a part of the regular work of universities, has in general been remote from the field of social work in organization and viewpoint. Nevertheless the organization of the Social Science Research Council in 1923, and of the Encyclopædia of the Social Sciences in 1926, are significant indications of a desire to bring these fields more closely together. Though no agency in the field of social work is a constituent member of the Social Science Research Council, Shelby M. Harrison, Vice-General Director of the Russell Sage Foundation, has been a member of that body almost from the beginning as a representative of the American Sociological Society, and a number of social workers have served upon various committees of the Council. The Encyclopædia mentioned has gone somewhat farther. Social Work is one of the main fields or disciplines covered; the American Association of Social Workers is one of the 11 constituent societies sponsoring the enterprise, and social workers are represented among the advisory editors and on the editorial staff. Some of the research currently undertaken by specialized academic groups bears directly upon social work. Historical and economic researches have broadened the horizon of social workers and furnished valuable information concerning the nature of social institutions and economic processes. Biological and psychological studies and psychiatry have enlarged the understanding of the social worker concerning the individual. In the sociological field many of the studies of social pathology, community problems, and population are of mutual concern to social workers and sociologists. On the other hand, many of the annual discussions of the American Sociological Society, the articles appearing currently in the *Journal of Sociology*, the lists of doctoral dissertations in this field in progress in universities and colleges, and the summaries of current research projects in the same periodical seem concerned with problems of methodology or with aspects of the social process which are not primarily of importance to social work. The recently established section of the American Sociological Society devoted to sociology and social work has thus far produced only minor results, although its creation is significant of recognition of the need for cooperative effort.

Two influences have been manifested in the last decade which should serve to bring about a closer coordination between academic social research and social work. The first of these is the increasing tendency of universities to undertake the training of students for social work as part of the program of one or another of the established social science departments. Through the first-hand contact with social work necessi-

tated by such undertakings and through the addition of experienced social workers to the faculties of these institutions, a more realistic conception of social research is becoming evident. The second tendency is an integration of the several social science departments of universities, including the sections devoted to preparing social workers, for the purposes of formulating cooperative research projects. The Local Community Research Committee of the University of Chicago, with its emphasis upon study of urban problems and conditions, and the newly organized Institute of Human Relations at Yale University, which is beginning its program with a study of the family and juvenile maladjustment, are examples of this tendency.

Public Agencies. Furnishing the factual basis for an understanding of various social problems are the statistical and research undertakings of federal agencies. Special studies of the Bureau of the Census, Department of Labor, Children's Bureau, Women's Bureau, Public Health Service, Office of Education, Extension Service, Bureau of Home Economics, and the Federal Board for Vocational Education are the chief sources of information. These studies cover a wide range, including the following subjects, among others: the insane, care of the aged, the blind, and other dependent and defective groups; wages, living costs, child labor, women's labor, and other labor problems; child welfare and the work of public agencies in behalf of children; child hygiene, school hygiene, and maternal and infant mortality; vocational education, home economics, and recreation, particularly in rural areas; population, vital statistics, general health, and morbidity; and marriage and divorce, employment, and immigration. Several states also publish regularly statistics of employment, industrial accidents, dependency, crime, and so forth, and undertake important pieces of research and social investigations in these and other social fields. Examples of the latter are the statistical studies of mental patients made by Horatio Pollock, Director of the Statistical Bureau of the New York State Department of Mental Hygiene.

Private Research Bureaus. The National Bureau of Economic Research, a voluntary agency, has made valuable studies of wealth and income distribution and of economic trends. Brookings Institution and the American Academy of Political and Social Science are examples of other agencies whose research is not in the field of social work, but whose studies or publications are often of marked importance to that field.

Private Social Agencies. Aside from the governmental bureaus, whose method is largely statistical, the larger part of the research undertaken directly by social agencies or at their instigation is either of the survey or the special study type. There is as yet little continuous or systematic research. Social studies and specialized surveys are attempts to concentrate upon particular problems for the purpose of calling attention to social abuses and to foster constructive programs of legislation or social action. The National Child Labor Committee in its field, the National Consumers League in the field of child and women's labor, and the American Association for Labor Legislation have furnished noteworthy examples of such studies in special fields. At the same time local agencies—such as the Charity Organization Society of New York City, through special committees on tenement reform, on tuberculosis, on criminal courts, and so forth, or Hull House and the University Settlement in Chicago—have engaged in studies of selected social problems. Through private state-wide agencies such as the New York State Charities Aid Association or the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, or through state boards of public welfare, or special state commissions numerous studies have been made and are being made of public relief and dependency, state institutions, the problems of industrial accidents, child welfare, education, unemployment, the blind, the insane, and so forth. Recently commissions in several

states have been concerned with the problem of the aged, influenced by an organized demand for old age pensions.

Another type of study, influenced also by the departments of universities and by specialized social agencies, centers upon local urban communities and attempts not only to explore the work and programs of selected local social agencies, but also to cover general social conditions and problems. To surveys of this type national social organizations and local bureaus of municipal research and governmental efficiency have contributed most largely. An early example was the Pittsburgh Survey (1907), which was followed by surveys in other cities and the development of city planning commissions and programs, and by attention to the underlying social and economic factors. *See* Social Surveys and City and Regional Planning.

Although a characteristic of these studies is the uncovering of vexing social problems —and they have been socially useful in influencing programs of reform—they usually contain little of permanent value as research because of haste in preparation, inadequate methods, and limited perspectives. Frequently such studies, useful for particular programs, have ignored many of the social, psychological, and economic implications of their problems. Among the worst examples have been the so-called "vice" surveys and reports, and several of the studies of mental defectives and of delinquents. These were statistically dubious and showed an amazing ignorance of logic and of scientific method. The vexing questions of prohibition and of crime, both of general concern to the public, seek in vain for authentic social information. The inadequacy of existing social research in these fields and the weaknesses of organized social research in general have thereby been brought to the attention of social workers concerned with these problems.

Influenced by the increasing demand for social research, and perceiving the need for systematic organization and development of standards, special agencies have recently appeared, devoted largely to work in this field. Welfare councils and community chests are developing or taking the task under their auspices. National bodies representing local agencies are giving increasing attention to it. The outstanding example in the national field is the Russell Sage Foundation, with its comprehensive research programs. The Commonwealth Fund has concentrated upon selected problems, as have the Rockefeller Foundation, the Payne Fund, the Inquiry, and the Wieboldt Foundation. Local agencies are served by such national bodies as the Bureau of Jewish Social Research, the Child Welfare League of America, and the Family Welfare Association of America.

In special fields such as that of juvenile adjustment successful organization of research has been achieved, as, for example, in the Judge Baker Foundation of Boston and the Behavior Research Fund of the Institute for Juvenile Research of Chicago. Current discussions indicate that an analogous development in the problem of marital and sex relations may be expected.

Studies under the auspices of local community councils or individual social agencies are concerned largely with administrative problems and matters of efficiency. Typical exceptions are the studies resulting in standard budgets for dependent fami ies, made under the auspices of the Chicago Council of Social Agencies, which have been widely useful. Standards for evaluating social work have been largely empirical, based upon the prestige of representative agencies rather than upon fundamental studies or measurement of methods, processes, and results. The control of surveys and special studies is today in the hands of the expert administrator, not the qualified research worker. The demand for a different method is making itself felt in the emphasis placed by local councils and national agencies upon uniform reporting and accounting, the development of standard units of accounting, a common terminology, and the organization of statistical indexes for all forms of social treatment. Typical of

work along these lines is that of the Statistical Department of the Russell Sage Foundation and the Registration of Social Statistics, undertaken jointly by the American Association of Community Chests and Councils and the Local Research Committee of the University of Chicago. *See* STATISTICS OF SOCIAL WORK.

A growing recent interest is also shown in the formulation of a theoretical basis for current technique (for example, the Milford Conference report on *Case Work, Generic and Specific*); in the publication by the University of Chicago Press of significant case material and case records in the family and medical social work fields through the initiative of Sophonisba P. Breckinridge; and in commendable attempts to study the very difficult problem of evaluating social work results, such as the evaluation of case work by Georgia Ralph, of the New York School of Social Work, and of case treatment by the Trounstine Foundation of Cincinnati. *See* STATISTICS OF SOCIAL WORK. Among other research agencies whose work has gone beyond the study of administrative efficiency of local agencies are the Women's Educational and Industrial Union of Boston, the Cleveland Foundation, and the Buffalo Foundation. Pittsburgh has recently organized the Buhl Foundation, whose field is the study of social problems in the Pittsburgh area. The American Association of Social Workers, in addition to research in problems of a professional nature, has encouraged projects by chapters and special committees, of which studies in the technique of the interview may be mentioned. An increasing amount of research is also being undertaken by graduate students in schools of social work, and important studies have been published by the Graduate School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, New York School of Social Work, School of Applied Social Science of Western Reserve University, and other schools. The *Social Service Review* (University of Chicago Press), a quarterly established in 1927, emphasizes materials and reports of research in social work, as does *Social Forces* (University of North Carolina Press), established several years earlier.

Selected Research Projects. A few examples of recent research, emanating either from the social work field itself or from other groups whose contributions are important to social work, the auspices under which they have been undertaken, the methods used, and the media for publication, will serve to indicate the variety of sources from which social research derives:

(1) A study of the psychological aspects and results of relief in family case work, made by Grace Marcus in behalf of the Charity Organization Society of New York City and published by that organization in 1929.

(2) A study of children of illegitimate birth whose mothers have kept their custody, made by A. Madorah Donahue (Publication No. 190 of the federal Children's Bureau, 1929).

(3) A study by Frank M. Freeman, Professor of Educational Psychology of the University of Chicago, of the effect of foster homes on the intelligence of children, published in *Social Service Review*, March, 1929. This study indicates that intelligence cannot be considered solely as an innate factor, but is profoundly influenced by home environment.

(4) Studies of the institutional and pension plans for the aged, made by the United States Department of Labor and reported in its *Monthly Labor Review*, 1928–1929.

(5) A sociological analysis of the contents of 2,000 case records with special reference to the treatment of family discord, undertaken under the auspices of the Wieboldt Foundation by Ernest R. Mowrer and published in *Social Forces*, June, 1929, and in *Family Disorganization*, 1928.

(6) A series of social service monographs published by the University of Chicago Press, giving the results of studies made under the auspices of the Local Community Research Committee and the School of

Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, including *Public Welfare Administration in Louisiana*, by Elizabeth Wisner, 1930; *The Bail System in Chicago*, by Arthur L. Beeley, 1928; and *Measurement in Social Work* by A. W. McMillen, 1930.

(7) A time study of public health nursing and clinic services for the University Public Health Nursing District, completed by the Cleveland Health Council in 1929.

(8) A national study of corporation gifts and support of philanthropic activity (in process), by the National Bureau of Economic Research, assisted by the Community Chest of Washington, D. C.

(9) A study of the relation between mental and physical status of children, by Grover A. Kempf and Selwyn D. Collins (United States Public Health Reports, Reprint 1301, 1929).

(10) Studies of factors in the life experience of paroled prisoners for the purpose of predicting success or failure on parole, undertaken by independent investigators, among them a study by Sheldon Glueck and Eleanor T. Glueck, of Harvard University, and published as "Five Hundred Criminal Careers" (1930).

(11) A study of the workings of the indeterminate sentence law and the parole system in Illinois, made at the request of the Parole Board of the State of Illinois by Ernest W. Burgess, of the Sociology Department of the University of Chicago, 1928.

(12) Studies in progress of the cost of medical care undertaken by an organization developed for this purpose—the Committee on the Costs of Medical Care.

(13) A study of the effect of the foster home upon behavior of children, undertaken by William Healy, Augusta F. Bronner, Edith M. H. Baylor, and J. Prentice Murphy, and published under the title, *Reconstructing Behavior in Youth*, 1929.

(14) A presentation and evaluation of the various academic and practical activities for the study of child behavior, collected by W. I. Thomas and Dorothy Swaine Thomas, and published as *The Child in America*, 1928.

(15) Studies published in 1929 by Dr. Katherine Davis of the *Factors in the Sex Life of 2,200 American Women*, under the auspices of the Bureau of Social Hygiene.

(16) Social Changes of 1929 (also 1927 and 1928), a compilation by 21 sociologists edited by William F. Ogburn and published in the *American Journal of Sociology*. Significant trends during the year are analyzed and evaluated by competent research students.

LITERATURE: No textbook is available which bears directly upon the problem of research in social work. The following references treat closely related topics: Lundberg, George A.: *Social Research—A Study in Methods of Gathering Data*, 1929; Odum and Jocher: *An Introduction to Social Research*, 1929; Gee, Wilson (editor): *Research in the Social Sciences—Its Fundamental Methods and Objectives*, 1929; Bowley, A. L.: *Nature and Purpose of the Measurement of Social Phenomena*, 1915; Eaton and Harrison: *Bibliography of Social Surveys*, 1930; Phelps, Harold A.: "The Case Record and Scientific Method," in *The Family*, June, 1927; Sheffield, Ada E.: *Case Study Possibilities; A Forecast* (Boston Research Bureau on Social Case Work), 1922.

H. L. LURIE

FOR related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 597.

SOCIAL RESEARCH IN INDUSTRY, conceived as a branch of social work, may be defined as research by social agencies which concerns itself with conditions and relationships in industry affecting individuals, families, or the community; and which utilizes the data of experience in social work. Broadly speaking, social work has to do with the standard of living, seeking adjustments for the individual whose economic status or place in industry does not yield sufficient returns to provide him and his dependents with the essential elements of a living. This is the individual aspect of the standard of living. Social workers are concerned also

with such conditions in the community as shall enable the individual to secure proper housing, education for his children, and opportunities for the uses of leisure. Social work encounters industry in its twofold effect upon the individual and the community, since naturally industry supplies the economic basis for the standard of living. But social work does not control these conditions. It meets them in their bad effects. If these effects are to be prevented at the source, in industry itself, the contribution of social work toward that end is naturally made through records of experience which illuminate the problem and give the community and industry itself a reliable basis for action.

Naturally all findings of the social sciences in economic and industrial fields are material for the use of the social worker, and in turn social work has its contribution to make to the social scientists who under other auspices are carrying forward their studies of industry. The inclusion of social work among the branches of social science represented in the new Encyclopædia of the Social Sciences is evidence of this relationship. Labor problems will have their place in the Encyclopædia; and in so far as research in social work has produced studies of industry which are scientific in character, they will be so recognized. As the editor of the Encyclopædia points out, "Like the engineer, the social worker starts with a concrete problem and in his inquiries draws freely upon all the social sciences." Employment in factories is named as an example of a field "in which the social worker is applying his professionalized methods of investigation and offering his professional services."

Social work has used research in several different ways: to give evidence to the public regarding conditions as it finds them; to study the facts as a basis for determining its own policies; to afford material for enactment of labor laws and for perfecting their administration; to form new agencies to deal with specific industrial conditions, such as child labor; and to advocate new governmental research or administrative bureaus, or special investigating commissions.

For example, family welfare agencies have made studies of unemployment; social settlements have mapped their neighborhoods, revealing tenement house manufacture and sweatshop conditions; the National Federation of Settlements has had under way in 1929–1930 a revealing series of life stories of the unemployed neighbors of the settlements; a state conference of charities and correction initiated before the War a study of standards of living among workingmen's families. The Welfare Council of New York has included in its program such industrial topics as current reporting of employment conditions by the non-profit-making employment agencies of the city; employment handicaps of older workers; and the possibility of sheltered workshops for handicapped workers.

When the Russell Sage Foundation was organized to improve social and living conditions, it early gave recognition to industry as a major factor in this task. From 1908 to the war period studies were made of the employment of women in industry in its social effects. After the Women's Bureau was established in the United States Department of Labor during the war, the Foundation, beginning in 1919, turned its attention to the relations between employers and employes, particularly to the developing experience in certain industries looking toward more definite representation of the workers' points of view through shop committees and trade unions. The Department of Industrial Studies has published four books in this series and is continuing to carry it forward under the general title of Labor's Participation in Management. The Department is also closely related to the Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association, which seeks to standardize and extend current governmental statistics, particularly on fluctuations in employment and unemployment. The application of social research in industry to criminology and the

treatment of delinquents has been illustrated by an investigation made for the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement by the director of the Department, who was loaned for that purpose to act as consultant for the Commission. The subject has been Work and Law Observance, a Study of the Influence of Unemployment upon Crime.

The specialized agencies carrying on research in industry include those concerned with labor legislation, such as the American Association for Labor Legislation, the National Consumers' League, and the National Child Labor Committee. The Consumers' League had its origin in the experience of a pioneer social worker, Josephine Shaw Lowell, who was one of the founders of the charity organization movement in the United States. It aims to use the power of the consumer to aid the wage-earner by urging buyers to purchase only goods made and sold under wholesome conditions. In the last two years it has used these methods to raise standards in the candy industry, after an investigation of conditions in the New York City factories. The League also advocates labor laws. Similarly the National Child Labor Committee, which aims to abolish child labor, has published many studies in the field and is now concerned with problems of vocational guidance and points of contact between the schools and industry.

The American Association for Labor Legislation, dealing broadly with the whole field, has of late cooperated with the Welfare Council of New York in studies of old-age dependency as a hazard intimately related to industrial conditions, has carried forward a comparative study of labor-law administration designed to make labor legislation more effective in all states, and has for many years been a leader in the enactment of workmen's compensation laws.

This development of workmen's compensation may be traced to interest which was stimulated by the Pittsburgh Survey, under the auspices of *Charities and the Commons*, now the *Survey*. In *Work Accidents and the Law* (1910), the facts about what actually happened in the families of wage-earners killed in industry in one year in the Pittsburgh district were set forth. Thus the experience of families within the purview of social workers in one community constituted the basis for revealing industrial accidents as a recurrent condition for which individual wage-earners could not be held responsible and which insurance provided in advance by industry was the logical means of controlling as a cause of poverty.

In the Research Department of the Federal Council of Churches emphasis has been rather upon the industrial conflicts which disturb communities. The demand for fact-finding has come alike from churches and social workers puzzled as to the policy to adopt in their own communities. Accordingly the Federal Council has aimed to give the facts with opportunity for both sides in the conflict to state the case and to let the general public, the churches, and the social agencies draw their own conclusions.

The employment difficulties of disadvantaged races, such as the Negro in America, have been the subject of research by such organizations as the National Urban League. The National Interracial Conference of 1928 was a joint effort of a large number of social agencies concerned with problems of the relationships of the Negro and white races to review the findings of social research as applied to these problems, including as of major importance economic and industrial conditions. *The Negro in American Civilization*, by Charles S. Johnson, an analysis growing out of this conference, is to be published in 1930.

In a division of the National Conference of Social Work concerned with industrial and economic problems, the interest of social workers in the results of social research in industry is made evident. In 1927 a comprehensive study of The Effect of Labor Laws on Women Workers was reported to this division. This had been made by the Women's Bureau of the United States De-

partment of Labor. In 1928 the program included studies of The Economic Stabilization of the Family, including (1) Standard of Living and (2) Workmen's Compensation and the Family. In 1929 this division discussed Social Workers and Labor Unions.

Other agencies carrying on research in industry include those which are more or less representative of employers or of labor, such as the newly organized Railway Labor Research Foundation, an outgrowth of the Railway Labor Employes' Department of the American Federation of Labor; the Bureau of Personnel Administration; Industrial Relations Counselors, Inc.; Labor Bureau, Inc.; and engineering groups such as the Taylor Society and the Federated American Engineering Societies. Included also are governmental agencies such as the Women's Bureau, Children's Bureau, and Bureau of Labor Statistics of the United States Department of Labor, and the research and statistical bureaus of state labor departments.

Though the volume of social work in industry resulting from investigations by social agencies is considerable, opportunities for permanent positions in this field are very limited. Staffs of the organizations mentioned are small. Frequently studies are temporary in character. The interest of social work in the research point of view about industrial problems is evidenced, however, by such courses of training in industrial research as are given in schools of social work, notably in the New York School of Social Work and in the University of Chicago Graduate School of Social Service Administration.

It is likely that social research in industry in the immediate future will concern itself with such major hazards to the standard of living as unemployment. Within that general field is wide scope for utilization of the methods and the experience of social work.

CONSULT: Harrison, Shelby M.: "Social Case Workers and Better Industrial Conditions," in *Proceedings of the National Conference of Social Work*, 1918; and van Kleeck, Mary, "Social Research and Industry," in *Proceedings of the First International Conference of Social Work*, 1928, Vol. 3, pp. 88–107, and address on the same subject, pp. 153–160.

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 597.

SOCIAL SERVICE BUREAUS, SOCIETIES, or LEAGUES. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES provide an index to the case records of social agencies. Their primary object is to foster coordination in treatment. Other names by which the exchange is known are Joint Registration Bureau, Registration Bureau, Central Clearing House, Confidential Exchange, and Central Index. Since most social case work relates to families, the exchange is very largely an index of families rather than of individuals. Cards are on file for families known to the social agencies of the community. These record the family's name and address, together with other information needed for identification—usually the names and ages of the children and other members of the immediate family group. No information is recorded as to the needs or problems of the family or its members.

When a family comes to the attention of an agency included in the exchange, either through application or reference, communication is at once established with the exchange by telephone or otherwise in order to learn if the family is known to any other agencies. If it is so known, the names of those agencies appear on the family's card with the dates of their contact. The inquiring agency may then learn from the agencies listed if its services are needed with the family in question, and cooperative planning for treatment may be adopted where that seems wise. It is by this process of inquiry that the records of the exchange

are built up. The exchange is not only for family welfare or relief societies; its service is equally valuable to agencies in the public health and school nursing field, to hospital social service departments, to probation or attendance departments, or to children's agencies, settlements, and churches.

History and Present Status. The transformation in purpose since the first exchange was organized in Boston in 1876 is strikingly shown by the fact that the object of the original Boston organization was "to secure an interchange of information to thereby detect imposture, discourage begging, distinguish worthy from unworthy and promote economy and efficiency in distribution of relief." Between 1910 and 1915 many exchanges were organized under the auspices of family welfare societies, and the use of the exchange was extended to health and children's agencies, settlements, and schools. With this extension of service gradually came the more constructive purpose of the present day, the exchange being regarded as an instrument for more effective social diagnosis and cooperative planning in treatment.

With the new purpose there came also a new terminology. The terms "registration" and "registration bureau" gave way to "inquiry" and "confidential exchange." As the work has become more inclusive, "social service exchange" has tended to replace the latter term. In 1920 an organization was formed, known as the American Association of Social Service Exchanges, to serve as a clearing house for exchange information. In 1925 the Association of Community Chests and Councils assumed responsibility for that service and its Committee on Social Service Exchanges was appointed. Since that date exchanges have been gradually transferred from family welfare societies to councils of social agencies or community chests. At present 194 exchanges are recorded, of which 94 are under the auspices of community chests or councils; 98 are under other auspices, and one is independent.

Training. In order that the use of the exchange may be properly interpreted to the agencies of a community, it is essential that its secretary should have both theoretical and practical training in social case work. In schools of social work brief reference to the subject of exchanges is ordinarily included in the courses given on social case work.

Developments and Events, 1929. Perhaps the most significant changes during the year were the merger of the Brooklyn and Manhattan exchanges, formerly operated by the family welfare societies of those boroughs, and the transfer of the administration to the Welfare Council of the greater city; the change of the name of the Boston exchange to Central Index and its transfer from the Family Welfare Society to the Council of Social Agencies; the transfer of the Washington, D. C., exchange to the Council of Social Agencies, and steps toward merging the exchanges of Delaware and Montgomery Counties in Pennsylvania with the Philadelphia exchange.

CONSULT: Committee on Social Service Exchanges (Association of Community Chests and Councils): *Hand Book on Social Service Exchanges,* and *Social Service Exchange—What it is and How it Operates;* Hall, Bessie E.: *Social Service Exchange—Is it a Mechanical Overhead or a Case Work Stimulant?* (Proceedings of National Conference of Social Work, 1925); Adams, Ruth French: *The Small City Exchange.*

LUELLA HARLIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

SOCIAL SERVICE FEDERATIONS. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

SOCIAL SERVICE LIBRARIES. *See* LIBRARIES OF SOCIAL WORK.

SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS. A settlement cannot be defined by what it does. It is a group of aims or ideals, the realization of which calls now for one kind of activity, now for another. It is a laboratory in social

science whose function is to discover ways of raising the general level of civilization, particularly among the less well-to-do elements in the community.

The word "settlement" has from time to time been variously qualified. The earliest houses were called "university settlements" or "college settlements." Gradually, however, the qualifying words were discarded except where they were parts of a title. During the past 15 years the word "settlement" itself has come to have for certain people a measure of that dislike which is attached to the word "charity," the term "neighborhood house" being regarded as more descriptive because more democratic.

The forms of work carried on in a settlement at any one time are those considered by the headworker to be specifically adapted either to the unmet but obvious needs of the local community or to testing yet unrecognized powers and capacities in individuals and neighborhood. The program, by definition, therefore, is changing and evolutionary. The service aspects of current activities are secondary to the obligation that the headworker and staff are under of judging expertly enough about what is worthwhile to be done, so that their experiments are at least possible candidates for adoption by the municipality, by other social agencies, or by commerce. Whenever one of these three types of agencies in the social scheme becomes willing to take over any of its activities, the settlement gladly relinquishes it. Obviously when a laboratory becomes a manufacturing plant its virtue as a laboratory ceases. A settlement which is merely an institution for performing a stereotyped service, no matter how valuable, by that fact ceases to be a settlement.

History and Present Status. The settlement has been called "an English patent adapted to American conditions." The founder of the settlement movement was Samuel A. Barnett, a British clergyman who chose to become vicar of a notorious Whitechapel parish in the East End of London because of his interest in working people. The hostel erected in 1884 for the activities he developed was called after Arnold Toynbee, one of the most promising of the young Oxford men who had responded to Mr. Barnett's pleading. The founders of the first half-dozen American settlements had all visited Toynbee Hall and had received inspiration and guidance from Mr. Barnett. The first American settlement to be organized was the Neighborhood Guild (University Settlement), established in New York City in 1886 by Stanton Coit. The College Settlement in New York and Hull House in Chicago were opened in the autumn of 1889. By 1891 there were five settlements in being, and from then until the beginning of the World War the number of houses doubled every five years. At present there are in the membership list of the National Federation of Settlements 160 settlements, with 1,500 staff members and 7,500 volunteer assistants.

The settlement, once established, tends to pass through a three-stage evolutionary process. The first stage consists in deciding upon a neighborhood in which to locate, finding a house, making the acquaintance of as large a number of neighbors as possible, carrying on a social and educational program which has many of the qualities of personal hospitality. Certain head-residents hold that this stage of development, which usually occupies from five to fifteen years, best expresses the settlement motive and offers the most constructive means of helping individuals and communities. Most settlements are now in the second stage of development. This calls for a building with a few institutional rooms, such as an assembly hall, a gymnasium, and several small meeting rooms in which varying types of social, educational, and recreational activities can be tried out. Settlements in this stage are usually housed in a single building with few if any rooms specially designed for specific activities, and both house and staff are kept adaptable so that new ideas or enterprises can be easily and quickly tried out.

Some of the long established houses have

come into a third stage, characterized by extensive plants in which there are rooms specially organized to encourage sound work in educational and social specialties, such as music, handwork, drama, athletics, swimming, and homemaking. Some houses have several buildings, each specifically designed for its purpose. There is always the tendency, once an activity has been developed to a high point of efficiency, to set it apart under a special board, with its own building, equipment, staff, financial support, policy and program. In certain instances such an activity is taken over by the general community and so loses its local and settlement cast.

The term "settlement" is used by three groups of agencies, the first two of which, while influenced by the settlement motive and carrying on certain of the activities which go on in some settlements, cannot be admitted to be typical. The three groups are the following:

(1) Missions. A number of these—specifically organized for the purpose of encouraging children, young people, and adults to change their allegiance from one religious denomination to another, and carrying on a program of education and recreation—call themselves settlements. Canon Barnett, himself a churchman, protested against this practice, and the use of the word "settlement" by an agency of proselytism, economic, religious, political, or cultural, is abhorrent to most settlement workers.

(2) "Parish agencies" or "denominational responsibility agencies." These are a group of institutions calling themselves settlements which are supported, governed, and staffed by denominational groups and which carry on sectarian (sometimes called "undenominational") religious activities within the house. Certain of these agencies go very far in their acceptance of the settlement motive and carry on a considerable range of educational and recreational activities. The objection to this group being called by the name "settlement" is not that religious work goes on in the house. The difficulty lies in the fact that the board and administration, and particularly the staff, is by definition committed to one doctrinal position. The typical settlement must be equally understanding of and sympathetic toward the Jew, the Protestant, the Greek and Roman Catholic, the Mohammedan, or the Buddhist so far as any of these religious loyalties are real in the lives of the people of the neighborhood. It will gladly allow the use of its rooms to any or to all of these groups at the same time. It stands for religion but not for sectarianism. The religious or the racial-religious house cannot take this attitude because its primary obligation is to a previously selected faith.

Yet a denominational group may be settlement-minded toward every other problem than that of religion. Given a homogeneous neighborhood of people of the same faith as the board and the staff, it can carry on experimental work in education or recreation of a high degree of validity. It can also undertake to experiment in ways of building up the parish activities of a given denomination, certainly a laudable motive. But this motive, even at its best, confines the typical settlement. Settlement experience by and large has proved that in communities inhabited by people of several sects it is almost impossible to carry on experimental work of high grade under the auspices of a denominational organization. The neighborhood refuses to accept the valuation of disinterestedness which the settlement puts upon itself. Therefore the typical settlement can see no gain in assuming the disadvantages that go with denominational affiliations.

(3) Typical settlements. In these the chief object is to be free to understand and meet the needs and outreachings of the people among whom the settlement works, in so far as the staff has the skill, intelligence, sympathy, and learning to know what they are. It must be free to respond to any need, to endeavor to meet any problem, to experiment with any budding capacity which it even suspects to exist. It is, in effect, a

laboratory in social science and it must be bound by nothing except its own innate capacities. It must be free, if necessary, to run counter to any loyalty either in or out of the neighborhood, to seek assistance and guidance and help from wherever it may be found, either in or out of the neighborhood. The number of typical settlements does not exceed 150, and with a few exceptions all are affiliated with the National Federation of Settlements. The significance of these houses is out of all proportion to their number, and their influence rests in the capacity of the headworkers and the judgment of the boards and supporters who have made it possible for outstanding leaders to express themselves.

The most important settlement activity is that of promoting free association between individuals and groups. The range and intensity of the personal relations between the people of the neighborhood and the staff have always been held to be the most important indications of the quality of the work of a settlement. The early residents lived in the neighborhood because they wished to identify themselves in every possible way with the people of the community. It has never been a matter of policy that residents must live in the building in which the work of the settlement is carried on. The purpose of residence is not administrative convenience, but ease of knowing those to be served equally, intimately, and humanly. Experience has shown that the chief executives should be citizens of the community, so that they may know firsthand as many as possible of the problems of the community and meet on equal terms with the largest possible number of the local citizens. The desire among some of the younger residents to live outside of the neighborhood, because personal recreation is more convenient, is one of the clearest points of diversion from the thought of the pioneers about their relation to their work.

The club is probably the sole activity which is common to all settlements. It stands for association in its purest form. The members of the settlement club meet on the basis of personal interest in each other and the quality of good-fellowship which they feel toward one another. No effort is made to turn a club into something other than it is. It cannot be coerced. It lives only so long as members find association rewarding and desirable. The resident or volunteer leader is merely one of the group, having only such influence as his personal qualities enable him to exercise. He has no official powers. Within the club the members have easy opportunity to show themselves to one another, to influence each other, and to make such contributions as they can to the group. The club offers the settlement staff an opportunity to make acquaintances with individuals and groups under conditions of freedom, and to discover what natural and instinctive powers, capacities, and desires individuals and groups have.

From time to time criticism of the club arises in settlement circles. It is said to be wasteful of the energy of leaders, prone to fritter away the time of its members, incapable of producing definite educational results. These disadvantages are, however, more than balanced by the virtues which have been enumerated, virtues of supreme importance to the settlement staff, whose primary purpose must be to know the mind of the people of the neighborhood and to discover their needs and powers. Whether or not the community needs the club is very much more open to debate than the need of the settlement for the club, if the resident group is to know its neighborhood. Most houses point with pride to the successful careers of the young men and women in clubs organized from 10 to 20 years ago. No settlement would attempt to claim all of the credit for results of such striking quality. On the other hand, there can be no doubt that the club has been an important influence in the lives of many successful men and women, who are most appreciative and generous in their recognition of the stimulus that came from association with outstanding settlement leaders and the interplay

with able and brilliant minds among their peers.

All settlements carry on varying forms of activity specifically organized to meet pressing civic, educational, recreational, and social needs of their localities. Health work includes the maintenance of convalescent homes, many forms of clinics, devices for health education, the organization of classes for training in good mental habits, a great amount of health advising, supervision of public and private health enterprise, and education in personal hygiene. Such work naturally changes in character during each five-year period. At present it tends toward mental training for small children; heart and under-weight clinics; medical examination in connection with gymnasiums, camp, and other institutional work, and a great deal of health propaganda. As community resources for curative work have increased, settlements have naturally reduced their clinics in favor of educational enterprises in hygiene.

Less attention is paid at the present time to local, state, and national politics than in the past. Few houses make direct onslaught against party machines. There is still, however, a good deal of supervision of the quality of work done by city departments of health, housing, sanitation, and recreation. The New York settlements have been particularly interested in safeguarding the rights of those who must inhabit the cheapest tenements by endeavoring to write protection against fire, sanitary, and moral hazards into the tenement house law. Certain residents feel that settlements are remiss in the slight attention paid to the public services, and that greater social results would be secured if the energy that goes into educational work under private auspices were devoted to demonstrating what might be secured if public servants were forced to live up to their opportunities and responsibilities.

Cooperation with the public schools continues at present, but in somewhat reduced amount. A great many of the devices which originated with, or were sponsored by settlements have been taken over by boards of education. Settlements here and there, however, give space for public kindergartens and crafts classes which supplement the work of the school, and take part in the vacation school programs. At the present time settlements are best supplementing the work of the public educational authorities by building up strong departments in the arts.

Personal acquaintance with labor leaders, interpretation of labor ideals to board members, support of labor legislation, interpretation of the labor union position in strikes, promotion of studies of wage-earners in industry and life, were important motives of the first 25 years of settlement work. These activities are now carried on so much more capably by the unions themselves that the assistance of the settlement is not welcomed by labor leaders, and such work has diminished.

During 1929 a study of the human costs of unemployment was carried on by the settlements of the country under the auspices of the National Federation of Settlements. Case histories of the experience of settlement families during a period of unemployment were collected and used in Congressional hearings on unemployment measures. Settlements are also participating in the movement to secure old age pensions.

Important work has been done in the past 10 years in providing instruction in the various arts as a means of personal development and recreation for children and young people. This movement began with the establishment of the settlements, but it made slow progress until 1920. The most thoroughly developed artistic interest is music. The first settlement music department was established at Hull House in 1892 by Eleanor Smith. Since 1910 the number of music schools and settlement music departments has grown by leaps and bounds, until there are now 15 music schools which are in the nature of conservatories, and an additional 50 settlement music departments in which a more limited range of instruction of excellent quality is offered. During 1928 and 1929

several music schools—including the Neighborhood Music School, the Greenwich House Music School, and Christodora House in New York, and the Irene Kaufman Settlement in Pittsburgh—came into possession of buildings or suites of rooms especially designed to meet their needs. Settlement music schools and departments are today the most outstanding educational institutions for the training of working-class children in music to be found anywhere in the world. In the range of curriculum, the quality of instruction, the nice adaptation of their pedagogic methods to the needs of the pupils served, they represent a highly important contribution to sociology, community organization, and pedagogy, and also a norm to which music education generally must aspire.

A development late in 1929 was the inauguration of a course of training for directors and teachers of music schools and settlement music departments, offered under the joint auspices of the New York School of Social Work and the Music Division of the National Federation of Settlements. In 1928–1929 several settlements, with the encouragement of the Music Division of the National Federation of Settlements, carried on experiments to better the quality and increase the amount of music used in the social functions of the settlement house, including club and other group singing, dancing, entertainments, concerts, and celebrations. Encouraging gains appeared to be made. *See* Music.

In the field of the arts and crafts the five years between 1925–1929 show a very striking increase in the volume and quality of work. Many new departments of pottery, modeling, drawing, and embroidery were set up. The settlement needlecraft shops remain the chief and most important means in the country for encouraging foreign-born women to preserve skill learned abroad in the use of the needle. There are between 15 and 20 settlements which produce salable craftswork having artistic quality. While these organizations are not commercially successful, they render a valuable artistic and humanitarian service, the artistic aspects being even more important than the humanitarian. Several houses have arts and crafts buildings in which trade training of unusual quality is provided. The new workshops of Greenwich House, New York, deserve special mention. *See* Arts and Crafts.

The settlements were pioneers in the little theatre movement in the United States, the Hull House players antedating all others. Drama in the settlements has also made notable gains. The number of houses having a stage with increasingly adequate equipment, a paid director of dramatics, and a permanent troupe of players is growing. Work of much more serious dramatic quality is being carried on. The graduation of the Neighborhood Playhouse from Henry Street Settlement in New York to Broadway marks the close of an episode in the development of drama in one settlement. Mention should also be made of the Little Opera Company sponsored by the Brooklyn Music School, and of operatic companies in several of the other settlements. *See* Amateur Dramatics.

Dancing is receiving growing recognition in the larger settlements, and is probably the next of the arts to be given the kind of intensive cultivation which has already been awarded to music and the drama.

Formal training in cooking, sewing, and the domestic arts has been turned back into the public schools as boards of education have made provision in the curriculum for these subjects. Practically all houses find, however, that the instinct to cook and sew is by no means satisfied by class instruction. Many girls crave opportunity to try out what they have learned in school and especially to put their knowledge to social use. The supper club, in which the group meets at the settlement in the late afternoon, markets in the neighborhood, cooks a meal, and serves it either with or without guests, is a widespread pattern under which exceptionally fine education in domestic science goes on. The old type of sewing school

continues to be popular in a limited number of neighborhoods.

Athletics still hold their well-established place as the chief interest among boys and men. It is now a matter of universal policy for settlements to have an adequate gymnasium, showers, and in a growing number of instances, swimming pools.

Many workers regard the camp as the most important single settlement activity. The work of the large fresh-air funds which antedated the settlement camps by a decade or more had as their chief motive the preservation of health. The settlement camps were pioneers in the "back to nature" movement among tenement dwellers. They had as their motive the all-round development, physical, social and educational, of children and youth. There are now very few houses which do not carry one or more camps for children and young people, and in some instances for mothers with small children. These camps nearly all operate on a maintenance or semi-maintenance basis. Those who use them are encouraged to pay as nearly as they can the full cost of food and lodging and overhead. Many settlement camps have become a focus for the interest and loyalty of the children and young people who go to them, and of alumni of the house and of friends in the settlement neighborhood. *See* Summer Camps and Day Outings.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Training for settlement work is very little formalized. There are two types of job in the settlement, one that of the administrator and the other that of the group leader or instructor. The training of the latter is contidered in articles in this volume relating so the respective specialties. Headworkers for the most part have not had their chief training in schools of social work. The best preparation for a settlement administrator is training in a recognized professional school in such fields as those of education, law, the ministry, medicine, nursing, art, or music. A number of settlement head-residents have supplemented general and other professional education by courses in schools of social work. It would hardly be considered adequate training for an important headworkership to pass from the bachelor's degree into a school of social work, because such a head-resident might easily become merely an administrator of an institution in the neighborhood rather than a person of adequate professional discipline which would help him to judge some one department of the local life expertly.

Recent Events and Trends. Among the outstanding events in 1928–1929 affecting the organization and administration of settlements is the fact that several long established houses, among them the College Settlement and the East Side House of New York City, have discontinued their work in its traditional form because of changes in the neighborhoods in which the house was located. The College Settlement has turned its energies to experiment outside the settlement field, and the East Side House is considering a new location. The problem of settlement neighborhoods absolutely wiped out of existence by the restless march of industry and population is one that is bound to affect an increasing number of settlements in the more thickly settled portions of New York and Boston. There are almost no other cities in which the problem of the disappearing neighborhood is likely to become acute. This statement needs to be made because there is a tendency to report what happens in New York over the country and to regard it as typical. It thereby acquires a degree of importance which it does not inherently possess.

There has been a marked increase in the capital resources and endowments of settlements within the past few years. New buildings totaling several millions of dollars in value have come into the possession of houses.

As the great majority of settlements are located in what formerly were the receiving neighborhoods for newly arrived immigrants,

it has naturally come about, with the restriction of immigration, that the proportion of non-English-speaking attendants upon settlements decreases year by year. There is also less of the cruel and degrading type of want which existed before 1910. Working people have become more comfortable, have more in the way of food and possessions, and are able to respond to an expanded cultural program. These two tendencies, and the fact that there are increased public facilities of sanitation and recreation, have made it possible for the settlements to devote time which formerly went to jacking up city departments and taking care of poverty to the development of an educational program.

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ALBERT J. KENNEDY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

SOCIAL SURVEYS. Great and rapid change stands out as a conspicuous feature of American community life. The quick rearrangement of the physical and other environmental elements of associated living is not unexpected in the younger settlements of a new country; but the last thirty to fifty years especially have seen a rapid surging of social and economic forces, transforming many older communities as well. In both cases, mere growth in numbers of people has been one influence at work; but there have been others, among them tremendous developments in the control and use of material forces. These constant and far-reaching changes in the components and expressions of social life have taken many forms, and have created new community situations which are but little understood and which call for social action. The locality is exceptional indeed which has not been affected; and many have attempted new adjustments to meet their newly emerging needs. Extensive modifications in the form of work and the content of programs have been made by religious, educational, industrial, civic, social, governmental, and other bodies.

But adjustments and new adaptations of the importance called for could not be made intelligently without much more information than was ordinarily available. Facts were seen to be a primary requirement, first, as a means of interesting citizens in conditions calling for attention, and second, as a basis for concerted action. The recognition of this basic necessity, together with the increasing attention which was being given by social workers and others to clues which might suggest preventable causes when the same form of distress was seen to recur frequently, the growing tendency to apply inductive methods to social questions, the increased effort to improve public record-keeping and statistical methods, and a beginning at least in the development of other tools of social research, combined to make the study or survey of community conditions almost indispensable to the modern community, whether neighborhood, parish, village, city, region, or state.

History and Present Status. But these developments toward the study of local conditions did not come all at once. They were beginning to show themselves in the nineties and have risen more clearly above the horizon in the decades since 1900. Although the antecedent tendencies were prophetic of an epoch in which the discrepancy between the use of scientific methods in the physical and social sciences might be corrected, it was not until the Pittsburgh Survey in 1907 that these tendencies took definite form, at least as far as local studies were concerned. In it

a new type of endeavor was born which not only articulated developing needs and developing scientific tools, but also gave illustration and impetus to an idea which seemed destined to spread widely.

Although there had been a few previous occasions when the term "survey" had been applied to certain types of social inquiry, the word in the sense in which it has become so familiar was first applied in this Pittsburgh project. The Pittsburgh Survey was directed by Paul U. Kellogg, and was carried out by *Charities and the Commons*, now the *Survey*, under a grant from the Russell Sage Foundation, which also published the six volumes of findings. It has been described by Mr. Kellogg as "an attempt to throw light upon these and kindred economic forces, not by theoretical discussion of them, but by spreading forth the objective facts of life and labor which should help in forming judgment as to their results." Its subject matter included the study of wages, hours of work, work accidents, other industrial conditions, family budgets and home conditions, typhoid fever and other important health and sanitary problems, housing, taxation, the public schools, city planning, hospital and other institutional needs, and certain phases of the crime situation.

Although other studies had been made which portrayed current social and civic conditions realistically—such as those by Jacob Riis, Lincoln Steffens and Ida Tarbell, the *Hull House Maps and Papers*, the investigations by a few commissions on public efficiency and economy, and the series of studies of the *Life and Labour of the People of London*, by Charles Booth—the Pittsburgh Survey possessed other features which marked it as an outstanding event in the use of social investigation. While employing the methods of social research as developed at the time, and also contributing something to their further development, perhaps its greatest claim for distinction lay in its success in combining the methods and skills of the social investigator with those of specialists in other fields.

In the light of the Pittsburgh and later experience with the idea, the social survey may be defined as the application of scientific method to the study and treatment of current social problems which have structural relations to each other and specific geographical limits and bearings, plus such a spreading of resulting facts and recommendations as will make them, as far as possible, the common knowledge of the community and a force for intelligent coordinated action. To accomplish their purpose, surveys draw upon the knowledge and skills of social workers, research specialists, engineers, physicians, city planners, social journalists, and other publicity workers.

By the end of three years after the Pittsburgh Survey enough cities desiring surveys had sought advice and cooperation to make the Russell Sage Foundation feel warranted in establishing in 1912 a Department of Surveys and Exhibits. The two main objectives which the Department set for itself were the spreading of the survey idea and the further development of survey methods, in the furthering of both of which advice and assistance were made available on specific proposals. As demonstration projects the Department has conducted a number of preliminary and general surveys, but its most important undertaking, aside from its participation in the surveys of the New York Regional Plan, was the Survey in 1914 of Springfield, Ill.

The Springfield Survey added a number of new features, some of them perhaps only in degree of emphasis, as follows: It was initiated locally and sponsored throughout by a very representative group of citizens; seventeen agencies, national and state, public and private, collaborated in the enterprise; a large proportion of the cost was borne by the locality; over 900 citizens participated as volunteer workers, taking part in the field investigations or in the preparation of the survey exhibition; and a highly intensive and diversified educational campaign was carried out to help the public to understand and reckon with the survey's findings.

The first surveys covered a broad range of

subjects; they were general studies of entire communities. A tendency set in, however, after a few years toward employing the survey to appraise some major phase of the community life, such as health and sanitation, public education, recreation, or delinquency and correction. Outstanding examples of these are the series of investigations in Cleveland which included surveys of education, recreation, criminal justice, and hospitals and health; surveys of municipal administration by the National Institute of Public Administration and the New York Bureau of Municipal Research; the church surveys in Springfield, Mass., and St. Louis by the Institute of Social and Religious Research; and the several studies of unemployment under way during 1929 in different parts of the United States.

The general survey is of special value in communities not only where definite measures for social improvement need outlining, but where interest and sense of responsibility for social conditions still lie relatively dormant and need arousing. Doubtless one of the chief reasons for the shift toward the more specialized survey is the fact that many communities in this country have now passed beyond the "awakening" stage and seem inclined to deal in a more intensive way with special problems or groups of them, taking them up one by one. Moreover, as the technical equipment of surveyors has developed and improved, surveys in single fields have become so intensive and comprehensive that the accumulated findings in a single field often promise to be as much as the community can assimilate effectively before being diverted to new topics.

Perhaps the most conspicuous exception to this trend is the present practice of surveying communities comprehensively as a basis for city and regional plans—a procedure which seems not only warranted but inevitable because of the intimate relation between the numerous physical, social, economic, legal, and other phases of the city's or region's future development. Another group of exceptions of almost equal importance is the series of investigations being conducted in rural communities. These range from the securing of a fact-basis for community organization in the township or county unit all the way to the study of future programs for rural states. The general survey has been used with apparent advantages also as a basis for the Better Cities Contests which have been conducted for a number of years by the Wisconsin State Conference of Social Work.

The survey idea has spread far, as is seen in a *Bibliography of Social Surveys* compiled by the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, Russell Sage Foundation, which lists no fewer than 2,700 different projects up to January 1, 1928. Surveys of schools and education head the list with more than 450; health and sanitation come next with over 300; city and regional planning and industrial conditions and relations run well above 150; and housing above 100. General social surveys numbered 153, of which 81 dealt with urban and 72 with rural areas. These were limited to the United States, although some notable examples are to be found in other countries, among them the surveys of Constantinople, Prague, Peking, York, Edinburgh, and other cities of England and Scotland.

The last few years have brought to light certain tendencies in the field here described. Among these, in briefest outline, were the following: A wider participation of local people and agencies in the various features of the surveys; more adequate financial support; the choice of specific fields for surveys and the comprehensive and intensive treatment of certain of these fields through the breaking up of the subjects into numerous subdivisions and the employment of improved statistical and other research methods; studied care in the selection of survey types, which has worked out in practice to mean a continuing interest in the general community survey where it still has a special function to perform; the setting up of local councils and other agencies equipped to make consecutive community studies in their own

cities over a period of years; growing attention to social surveys in text books and other writings on social subjects and in college courses; and relatively few instances in which the educational use of the findings would seem to have been given sufficient emphasis. Surveys of health, educational, industrial, housing, and city planning conditions continued in the front line of interest, with increases to be noted in studies of crime, mental hygiene, and the work of social agencies.

Developments and Events, 1929. As far as it is possible to judge, the number of surveys in 1929 suffered no decline. Some of the most outstanding projects and events include the initiation, continuation, or completion for publication of surveys as follows: The administration of justice in Boston; the noise abatement in New York City; the administration of justice in New Jersey, by the National Institute of Public Administration; the administration of Indian affairs, by the Institute for Government Research; a study of rural Vermont, by the Vermont Commission on Country Life; regional planning surveys of the Committee on Regional Plan of New York and Its Environs, of the National Capitol Park and Planning Commission in Washington, of the Regional Planning Federation of the Philadelphia Tri-State District, and of the Regional Planning Association of Chicago, together with a series of social studies in Chicago by the Local Community Research Committee at the University of Chicago; "Middletown," and a series of industrial village surveys, by the Institute of Social and Religious Research; a survey of Mental Hygiene Facilities and Resources in New York City, by a group of experts for the National Committee for Mental Hygiene and the State Charities Aid Association; studies undertaken in connection with the health demonstrations of the Milbank Memorial Fund and with the child health demonstrations of the Commonwealth Fund; investigations by the United States Public Health Service, Office of Education, Women's and Children's Bureaus; the Connecticut Mental Hygiene Study; a Recreational Survey of Rochester, N. Y.; the Providence Health Survey; the survey of interracial relations by the National Conference on Interracial Relations; and surveys and investigations conducted by such organizations as the New York City Welfare Council, the National Council and the National Board of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, Child Welfare League of America, Bureau of Jewish Social Research, National Catholic Welfare Conference, National Child Labor Committee, American Public Health Association, Committee on the Costs of Medical Care, American Child Health Association, the Brookings Institution, National Bureau of Economic Research, National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, other national organizations, a few university social research councils, numerous state and local crime commissions, local community chests and councils, bureaus of municipal research, and a number of national and local foundations.

CONSULT: Kellogg and Deardorff: "Social Research as Applied to Community Progress," in *Proceedings, First International Conference of Social Work, 1928;* Eaton and Harrison: *A Bibliography of Social Surveys, 1930;* Kellogg, Paul U., Editor: *The Pittsburgh District: Civic Frontage* (Appendix), 1914; Harrison, Shelby M.: *Social Conditions in an American City, 1920;* Odum and Jocher: *An Introduction to Social Research* (Chapter XVI), 1929; Brunner, Edmund de S.: *Surveying Your Community,* 1925; Horwood, Murray P.: *Public Health Surveys,* 1921; Palmer, Vivien M.: *Field Studies in Sociology,* 1928.

SHELBY M. HARRISON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22.

SOCIAL WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES.

SOCIAL WORK LIBRARIES. *See* LIBRARIES OF SOCIAL WORK.

SOCIAL WORK AS A PROFESSION. Germs of professional spirit and attitude toward charitable and correctional work are clearly apparent in the action of those who in 1865 organized the American Social Science Association "to promote the study of the social sciences, and especially their application to social problems." Nine years later came the National Conference of Charities and Correction, a child of the earlier body, to serve as the focal point of professional interest in social work. It was not until 1915, however, that social workers clearly demonstrated a desire for professional status. At the National Conference of Charities and Corrections at Baltimore in 1915, Dr. Abram Flexner examined the attributes of social work as a budding profession. He drew up seven criteria: (1) A professional group engages in intellectual rather than routine mechanical processes, and in this intellectual work a large measure of personal responsibility is assumed; (2) a professional group draws its materials from science and learning rather than from tradition or everyday, commonplace experience; (3) these scientific materials are applied to achieve practical ends; (4) a professional group develops an educationally transmissible content and technique; (5) a profession develops a body of scientific data with a literature of criticism and analysis of it; (6) the members of the profession tend to organize themselves, become class conscious and devote themselves to the advancement of professional interest through the preservation of the recognized ethical standards, through criticism of method, and through social and professional association with one another; and (7) a professional group is influenced by questions of public interest.

Dr. Flexner found that social work then qualified on the first, second, third, sixth, and seventh of these counts. He regarded the National Conference of Charities and Correction as a professional body, but questioned whether social workers had an educationally transmissible technique and a professionally scientific literature. At the National Conference of Social Work in Denver, 1925, William Hodson re-examined the question and found that between 1915 and 1925 case work had developed a more solid and distinctive content and that the literature on it was growing. He pointed to Mary E. Richmond's *Social Diagnosis* (1917) and *What is Social Case Work?* (1922). Although of the opinion that progress could be demonstrated, he did not claim professional status for social work as a whole.

Other contributions which have helped to build a professional literature in case work are Karl de Schweinitz's *The Art of Helping People Out of Trouble*, 1925; Sophonisba P. Breckinridge's case book, *Family Welfare Work in a Metropolitan Community*, 1924; and the published papers given at the Conference on Family Life in America in Buffalo in 1927 (*Family Life Today*), celebrating the fiftieth anniversary of the first Charity Organization Society in the United States.

Professional Organizations. The movement toward professional organization has had several manifestations. Besides the National Conference of Social Work, most of the populous states have had annual conferences and some of the larger cities have also conducted such gatherings. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK. The All-Philadelphia Conference of Social Work and the regional conferences of social work in Ohio are examples, as are the specialized regional conferences covering several states, such as those conducted every year by the Child Welfare League of America. The people engaged in special branches of social work, often alluded to as kindred groups of the state and national conferences of social work, have met for the discussion of problems in their respective fields. In the large cities social workers' clubs were active in the two decades following 1900. Until about 1920 they were the principal local means of promoting acquaintance among social workers, and at their meetings educational and professional papers were read.

In more recent years the frankly professional organizations have been the chief vehicles for the development of professional attitudes and study of professional questions. Among these organizations the American Association of Social Workers, the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, and the American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers have taken leadership. The American Association of Social Workers was an outgrowth of the Social Workers' Exchange, organized in 1916, which in turn was the offspring of the Inter-collegiate Bureau of Occupations. The primary function of the Exchange was one of vocational guidance and placement, but it extended its interest to standards of personnel, recruiting, and conditions of employment in social work. By 1919 the 750 social workers who had joined the Exchange began to regard themselves as a guild, and to discuss the question of self-support for a broader program and a more representative type of organization. In July, 1920, a special committee reported with recommendations of a comprehensive character, and a program of ultimate self-support through the payment of dues was outlined for the new organization. It was to operate in the fields of employment, job analysis, recruiting, vocational information, and service to the training schools for social workers. This proposed program was immediately adopted by a meeting of about 200 social workers. In December, 1920, a new periodical, *The Compass*, appeared as the Exchange's channel for news and education, and in June, 1921, the Association adopted its present name. So great was the interest in the fortunes of the new Association that in Providence in 1922, at its first formal annual meeting, 1,500 members attended and an acute desire for independence and self-direction developed. Contributions for the support of the Association were eschewed, to begin with 1925, and social workers pledged about $6,400 to the Association. From that time to the present the Association has enjoyed a steady growth in membership so that by the beginning of 1930 it had reached 4,748, and the local chapters, which are of great value to the organization, had grown to the number of 43. Its annual budget of nearly $30,000 is raised largely from membership dues.

The transfer of the vocational service in 1927 to the Joint Vocational Service left the American Association of Social Workers free to use its resources on other problems. Most important of these have been the revision of its own membership requirements, which went into effect in March, 1930. Eligibility for membership in the Association reacts broadly on employment policies of agencies and the admission policies of schools. Preparation of a series of technical publications, developing a better census of social workers, cooperation with other scientific bodies, and an analysis of positions in the entire field of social work (known as the Job Analysis and financed by the Russell Sage Foundation) have been other important interests.

Since its organization this Association has sought to bring to bear the influence of the organized body of social workers on other professional and scientific bodies. In 1924 the National Conference of Social Work in Toronto created a new permanent section for the purpose of discussing problems of professional education and status. After a committee of the Association in 1925 had drafted a list of topics on social work for the Encyclopædia of the Social Sciences, that organization invited the Association to serve as one of its 10 constituent bodies and to elect representatives to its joint committee. The Association has also cooperated actively with the International Conference of Social Work. It has carried on negotiations with the United States Census Bureau and has offered its cooperation to the Yale Institute of Human Relations. It retains good working relations with the Association of Training Schools for Professional Social Work, the American Sociological Society, and similar bodies.

Antedating the organization of the American Association of Social Workers is the American Association of Hospital Social

Workers, organized in 1918. This body has a membership of about 1,500 in the United States and Canada. Its program includes the promotion of scientific studies and research in the field of medical social work, the raising of standards of professional equipment and conditions of employment. It publishes a quarterly bulletin. The American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers has a membership of about 300 with similar aims. It began in 1922 as a section of the last-named association but became a separate organization in 1926. It is especially interested in promoting the thorough preparation of those electing this branch of social case work, and in the guidance and development of psychiatric social work in hospitals, clinics, schools, and under other auspices.

Developments and Events, 1929. The year was characterized by four important advance steps in the development of professional status for social workers: (1) The American Association of Social Workers advanced its membership requirements so that the former basis of experience "in an agency of recognized standing" as the principal factor of eligibility was replaced by requirements of preliminary education and technical education combined with such experience; (2) an agreement was reached between the American Association of Social Workers and the United States Census Bureau henceforth to classify social workers in the occupational census as a professional group along with physicians, lawyers, teachers, nurses, and journalists rather than as heretofore among the semi-professionals, which include turfmen, keepers of pleasure resorts, fortune tellers, and others whose professional claims are viewed with tolerant amusement; (3) a new committee was organized in the Association to study the question of preparation for social work, the job analysis studies having reached a point which provided a basis for judgment and discussion of the methods and plans of professional education; and (4) the membership committee of the Association devoted itself particularly during the year to the task of defining the relation and status of several border-line fields to the general field of social work. This problem in professional organization had been created by relationships established with members of other professional groups which often participate actively with social workers in the promotion of enterprises of a social character. Conspicuous among these groups are nurses, nutrition workers, home economists, adult educationists, journalists, and publicity specialists, besides physicians, lawyers, statisticians, and research specialists.

The professional status of social work was materially advanced in 1929 by the progress made in the job analysis studies already referred to. The first of these studies, on *The Social Worker In Family, Medical, and Psychiatric Social Work,* was published during the year; the second—on positions in group work, by Margaretta Williamson—and the third—on positions in vocational guidance and placement, by John Fitch—were completed during the year, or nearly so, in preparation for publication in 1930. Studies of positions in child caring, protective and correctional work were in the course of preparation. It is expected that within the next two or three years all of the principal positions in social work will be covered in this series.

Legislation, 1929. The year saw the first serious attempt to establish legal status for trained social workers. A bill to this effect was introduced in the Assembly of the Legislature of California, but was repeatedly amended and finally defeated. Its central provision was the establishment of the status of "registered social worker" through written and oral examination. Certificates were to be issued annually by the State Department of Social Welfare. The bill required that registrants be at least 21 years of age; have received training in a school of social service approved by the Department, or have engaged in social work for three years; and present satisfactory credentials as to character and experience.

Certificates might be revoked by the State Department for unprofessional conduct, but only after a hearing. Those persons certified were to be permitted to use the initials R.S.W. after their names, and it was to be unlawful for any other persons to use these letters. Many practical and political objections were raised to the bill, and it failed of passage in the Assembly and was withdrawn in the Senate. It is understood that a committee of social workers is to redraft the bill for introduction at the next session of the legislature.

CONSULT: Cheyney, Alice S.: *The Nature and Scope of Social Work*, 1926; Beisser, Paul: *Social Work and Its Professional Aspects* (American Association of Social Workers), 1922; American Association of Social Workers, Chicago Chapter: *Interviews*, 1928; and Milford Conference: *Social Case Work, Generic and Specific—an Outline* (American Association of Social Workers), 1929.

NEVA R. DEARDORFF

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 598.

SOCIAL WORK, CONFERENCES OF. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK.

SOCIAL WORK, TRAINING FOR. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK.

SOCIAL WORK UNDER STATE GOVERNMENTS. Many functions closely related to social work are exercised by departments, boards, and other branches of state governments. These functions are divided among the state agencies which deal with public welfare, labor, public health, and education. Their assignment to one rather than to another of these public bodies is frequently illogical. That fact, however, reflects the transition stage through which social activities are passing. A tendency is shown toward the transfer of many functions of this type to agencies for public welfare, particularly when that name has been assumed in place of names referring specifically to charities and correction. *See* EDUCATION, STATE AGENCIES; LABOR, STATE AGENCIES; PUBLIC HEALTH, STATE AGENCIES; and PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES.

SOCIETIES FOR FRIENDLY SERVICES. While "friendly services" of various kinds form a part of the program of most family welfare agencies, some societies have been organized for these specific purposes. They include needlework guilds, sewing societies or circles, fruit and flower guilds, flower missions, and the like. Their clients are the poor, the sick, the shut-in, and the handicapped, and the services offered to them in their homes and institutions include the following: friendly visits; writing letters for those who are unable to write; the distribution of garments, reading matter, flowers, potted plants, fruit, and jellies; and the rendering of such other friendly assistance as may be needed.

The Shut-In Society, in addition to rendering many of the services here mentioned, loans wheel-chairs to invalids. The National Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild, Inc., and The Needlework Guild of America, Inc., have been in existence more than 35 years and have developed continuously. The Needlework Guild of America in the year 1928–1929 had 650 affiliated local guilds and collected approximately 1,650,000 new garments for distribution among hospitals, homes, and other charities. The National Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild during 1929 distributed a large quantity of flowers, fruit and vegetables, seeds, potted plants, trees, jelly, and garden books, window boxes, hanging baskets and small box gardens, and sent several cartons of nature material to the nature study rooms of public schools. It added 14 local branches to its membership in the course of the year.

Other national agencies which report similar services by their constituents in connection with their other duties are the following: The United Order of True Sisters, a Jewish order which gives personal service through its sewing circles, where garments for

the poor are made, and makes visits to the sick, unfortunate and crippled; the National Council of Catholic Women, some of whose local groups supply reading matter, write letters, visit the sick and render other forms of assistance; and the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, which, through its Flower Mission and Relief Work, in 1929 distributed nearly 800,000 bouquets and plants, 191,508 jellies and preserves, and 229,429 garments. It also made 450,319 visits. In many districts throughout the country there are local friendly service agencies unaffiliated with any national organization.

CONSULT: Reports and other publications of the national agencies mentioned in this article.

MRS. IDA WHITE PARKER

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 598.

SOCIETIES FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

SOCIETIES FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN. *See* CHILD PROTECTION.

SOLDIERS' HOMES. *See* VETERANS.

SOLDIERS' PENSIONS or COMPENSATION. *See* VETERANS.

SOUTHERN MOUNTAINEERS. The section of country familiarly known as the "Southern Mountains" has been defined as an area of approximately 112,000 square miles, embracing parts of nine states: western Maryland, western Virginia, all of West Virginia, eastern Tennessee, eastern Kentucky, western North Carolina, northwestern South Carolina, northern Georgia, and northeastern Alabama. The dwellers in this section are chiefly descendants of the early pioneers, predominantly English and Scotch-Irish, who for political, religious, or economic reasons joined the western stream of migration and stopped to make their homes in the then untouched forests of the region. Locked in by natural barriers the population has not made rapid advancement socially or economically, but has preserved much of its pioneer charm and simplicity.

History and Present Status. As far back as the latter part of the eighteenth century a few mountain schools were started by Scotch-Irish Presbyterians, but the needs of the territory were not generally known until the latter part of the nineteenth century. During the last four or five decades a large number of church and welfare agencies have begun work in the section. *Southern Mountain Schools*, a recent publication of the Russell Sage Foundation, lists 149 schools, with about 30,000 students enrolled, maintained by 19 church boards and as many independent agencies. In addition are many religious and social centers which were not listed. Religious and educational activities have developed hand in hand. As the states have assumed more educational responsibility (two have passed equalization laws), the privately supported schools have changed their curricula, stressed vocational subjects, and in other ways have endeavored to supply what the public forces did not. Other public agencies which have developed programs are state colleges through their county and home demonstration agents, state boards of health in the work of their county health units, and the Red Cross through its nursing service and Junior Red Cross work. During the past two decades roads have been built, mining and lumbering industries developed, and railroads have penetrated remote coves. This increasing and rapid industrialization has presented many new problems, the solution of which demands the attention of mountain workers today. *See* RURAL ORGANIZATION OF RECREATION, RURAL SOCIAL WORK, and PUBLIC HEALTH, LOCAL AGENCIES.

The late John C. Campbell, director of the Southern Mountain Division of the Russell

Sage Foundation, made a significant contribution to all who live in the mountains by inaugurating the Conference of Southern Mountain Workers, which has met annually since 1913 and has been a valuable means for promoting understanding and cooperation. Mr. Campbell's dynamic personality still lives in the hearts of mountain workers, and his book, *The Southern Highlander and His Homeland*, published in 1921, is an authoritative source of information on this subject.

The present great need is for coordination of the many agencies in this field so as to avoid duplication of efforts. Several of the private agencies are aware of this situation, and are either relinquishing schools or making the necessary program adaptations. High schools are becoming junior colleges; adult education and general community programs, through which all public agencies can operate, are being developed. Public health work has made very great gains. A recent study by the author of this article indicates that approximately 35 private hospitals, 10 nursing centers, and 65 nurses supported by private agencies are now to be found in this region. These figures do not show the very great increase of public health units. North Carolina and Virginia have both organized county public welfare units (*See* Public Welfare, Local Agencies), and in Virginia a traveling psychiatric clinic has achieved significant results. One of the most interesting of the recent experiments in the field of education is the John C. Campbell Folk School. Its program, based on the principles of the Danish Folk School, differs entirely from standardized education, and is an attempt to prepare youth for a satisfying life in the country. Other short courses and night schools for adults are working on the same principles of "enlivening and enlightening." *See* Adult Education.

Developments and Events, 1929. Two very important developments, promoted during the year by the Conference of Southern Mountain Workers, were the organization of the Southern Mountain Handicraft Guild and the projected cooperative regional survey of the southern mountains. The former is sure to have a marked influence upon the development of handicrafts and the marketing of their products; the latter will furnish a fact basis for the evaluation and improvement of much of the present work. These indications of the growing interdependence of mountain workers augur well for the future.

Consult: Campbell, John C.: *The Southern Highlander and His Homeland*, 1921; Kephart, Horace: *Our Southern Highlanders* (revised edition), 1926; Raine, James W.: *The Land of the Saddle Bags* (Missionary Educational Movement), 1924; "The North Carolina Mountains: A Selected Bibliography," in *Mountain Life and Work*, January, 1928; also issues of *Mountain Life and Work* published since 1925 by the Conference of Southern Mountain Workers.

Helen H. Dingman

For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 598.

SPEECH DISORDERS are of many types and degrees. Speech is individualistic, and what the teacher may claim as a defect the parent may hold a quaint and interesting personal trait. Speech is said to be disordered when it is adversely conspicuous, unintelligible, unpleasant, or inappropriate, in amount or degree of development, to the age of the child.

The causes of speech disorder are as varied as its types. Some of the most common etiologies are: paralyses; defects of the structure of the nose, mouth, or throat; defects of hearing; disordered emotional life; and poor speech models in the child's early environment. The therapy must depend upon the cause. No one specialty embraces all of the techniques adequate to the handling of all cases of speech disorder. As organized in America, however, the major part of the therapeutic work is done in public schools by teachers especially trained in speech correction. Such teachers include

in their armamentarium mental hygiene, phonetics, and the technique of instruction in voice exercises. A comparatively small number of cases of speech disorder may be traced to roots in the poor social background of the patient, and in the study of such cases the efforts of the social case worker should supplement those of the speech teacher. In most other cases the social case worker discharges his professional obligation by referring the case to specialized agencies for study and treatment.

History and Present Status. In American public schools the earliest organized work in the correction of speech defects was undertaken in Milwaukee in 1885. Two classes of children, the deaf and the defective in speech, were segregated from the normal children and given special education in the "common branches" as well as training to help them cope with their defects. In New York City, similarly, segregated groups were organized in 1906 for the education of speech defectives alone. It was not until 1916 that the modern plan was adopted, whereby the child defective in speech received his speech training at the hands of a special teacher, and his education in the common branches from the regular teacher in a class with normal children. This step was taken almost simultaneously at Janesville, Wis., and at Grand Rapids, Mich. The work of speech correction is now established in the schools of about 85 American cities. About 450 teachers are employed, dealing with 55,000 children a year. If the average school life of the American child is assumed to be 10 years, 300,000 children, on the basis of the present turnover, will have gone through speech correction departments in that time. This figure is small, however, when compared with the 3,000,000 or more children in the public schools of the country who have speech defects. The existing program of correction is reaching not more than one defective in ten.

Agencies outside the public schools are also making efforts to correct disorders of speech. Many teachers give private lessons to pupils able to pay for instruction. Several medical clinics have organized departments for speech training, or include on their staffs specialists a significant portion of whose time is devoted to cases of speech disorder. Many universities, colleges, and normal schools maintain speech clinics where such children may be studied, diagnosed, and trained. There are also many schools operated for profit which solicit the attendance of speech defectives. Some of these are well-equipped and reputable; some, however, are staffed by ignorant but well-meaning teachers whose chief qualification for their work is their sympathy for the speech defective; other schools are apparently fraudulent in methods and motives. Often the teacher, social worker, or physician is asked to advise as to the choice of one of these private agencies for the correction of speech disorders. Such advice should be given only after thorough investigation. Any of the following practices by a school or clinic should give the adviser pause: the requiring of large fees in advance; the guaranteeing of "cures"; the claiming of extraordinary abilities, or superiority over other schools of similar nature; the soliciting of pupil-patients by high-pressure salesmanship; or the diagnosing and advising of patients by mail.

All agencies except the unprofessional ones have been able to extend their activities during the past few years. A program of public education is slowly forcing schools that are tainted by unprofessional practice either to mend their ways or to close their doors for lack of patronage. The effectiveness of agencies outside of the public schools is limited by the fact that they reach relatively few cases, and because the cases they do handle are too far advanced in their disorders to admit of correction. Speech disorders are best handled in the young child.

CONSULT: Fletcher, John M.: *The Problem of Stuttering*, 1928; Stinchfield, Sara M.: *Speech Pathology*, 1928; Ward, Ida C.: *Defects of Speech*, 1929; Travis, Lee Edward: "Recent

Research in Speech Pathology," in *Psychological Bulletin*, May, 1929.

ROBERT WEST

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 598.

SPORTS. *See* AMATEUR OUTDOOR ATHLETICS AND SPORTS.

STAMMERING. *See* SPEECH DISORDERS.

STATE BOARDS or DEPARTMENTS OF CHARITIES, PUBLIC WELFARE, EDUCATION, HEALTH, or LABOR. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES; EDUCATION, STATE AGENCIES; PUBLIC HEALTH, STATE AGENCIES; and LABOR, STATE AGENCIES.

STATE COMMISSIONS FOR THE STUDY OR REVISION OF CHILD WELFARE LAWS. *See* CHILDREN'S CODE COMMISSIONS.

STATE CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK. *See* CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK.

STATISTICS OF SOCIAL WORK may be divided into two main classes: those describing social or welfare work itself, and those relating to the conditions with which social work deals. Social statistics in the latter category—including among others those of the general population, health, employment, wages, cost of living, immigration, education, governmental finance, national income and wealth—are important for many types of research relating to social work. This article is concerned, however, only with statistics of social work activities, public and private, and particularly with the development in this field of statistical records for general use, with due regard to continuity of and comparability within the record, as contrasted with statistics compiled incidentally for the purpose of special research.

History and Present Status. The primary need for statistics in social work is for simple but comparable data for each field concerning the number of persons served, their significant characteristics, and the cost of service in terms of money and persons employed. Such facts are needed to show the size and distribution of the problems dealt with at given times and also their fluctuations and trends over long periods. Although the importance of such statistics for guidance in framing social legislation and in formulating administrative policies of individual agencies has been clearly recognized and often stressed by committees and individual students from almost the beginning of organized social work, and in spite of many efforts at statistical standardization, a satisfactory historical statistical record of welfare work in this country is still lacking. Within the past decade, however, a new interest and confidence in statistics has developed in social work. It has appeared somewhat later than in economic and business fields and to a considerable extent as a result of the example of successful application of statistical methods there. This progress toward establishing competent statistical records may perhaps be considered one of the outstanding recent developments in social work. Within the past few years also, in the field of delinquency, a promising approach has been made to the application of statistical methods in diagnosis and treatment of individual cases.

(1) State and Federal Agencies. As is to be expected, the publications of state and federal bureaus contain most of the statistical records that have been preserved of welfare work in the past. That their records have not been more adequate is not so much a reflection on these bureaus as an indication of lack of appreciation of and demand for statistics on the part of the social agencies in general.

The statistics of state welfare bureaus, or boards of charity and correction, as they were formerly called, have related chiefly to public institutional care of dependent, delinquent,

and defective persons, and in fewer instances to public outdoor relief. On the whole, these records are exceedingly fragmentary, although some states have long continuous records for certain types of institutions, and there is lack of comparability from state to state. New York, Massachusetts, and Minnesota are states having perhaps the best statistics covering long periods. Indiana and Pennsylvania also have long records of public or subsidized agencies. The Department of Welfare of the latter state has recently compiled a fifty-year record of such statistics from the tables of successive annual reports. Surprisingly, this long series of published statistical reports has been allowed to lapse during recent years. Emil J. Frankel, who compiled the Pennsylvania data, is now making a similar long-range compilation in the corresponding state department in New Jersey.

In connection with the federal population censuses, enumerations of persons dependent, delinquent, and defective were attempted, beginning for the blind and deaf in 1830, for the insane and feeble-minded in 1840, and for paupers and delinquents in 1850, and continuing through 1890. These statistics were obtained directly by the census enumerators, and except in so far as they relate to institutional populations are not considered even approximately complete. With the census of 1900 these counts were abandoned and special studies following the decennial censuses were instituted. These special statistical surveys of national scope have been of very great value. They have related to institutional populations primarily and have included much valuable detailed information, but they have defects owing to incompleteness and lack of standardization of the records of the institutions supplying the data from which they were made.

In 1926 the Bureau of the Census took an important forward step, as a result of careful preparatory work on the part of the immediately interested national agencies in social work, in inaugurating a series of annual reports of statistics of three classes of institutions, those for mental disease, mental defectives, and prisons. It would be most advantageous if such annual reports were to be prepared by the Bureau of the Census for each other type of benevolent or custodial institution. The Bureau of the Census has as yet no plans for continuing the decennial series of special studies of dependent, delinquent, and defective classes following the census of 1930, nor is it committed to continuation of the three series of annual statistical reports.

The most important other federal bureau which has so far published social work statistics is the Children's Bureau. It has recently brought about standardization of statistics of juvenile courts, and beginning in 1927 has published annual compilations of these figures. It has also compiled national statistics of public mothers' assistance for 1923 and 1928, and has plans under way for a more comprehensive statistical survey of this work in the near future. This Bureau is also planning to assume the collection of monthly statistics of public and private social agencies for individual communities which has been made during the last two years by the Committee on Registration of Social Statistics.

(2) Private Agencies. The rôle of attempting to improve social work statistics has fallen chiefly to private agencies. The long record of such attempts can only be outlined here. For nearly four decades after its establishment, in 1874, the National Conference of Charities and Correction had recurring committees concerned with the promotion of more adequate statistics. Interest at first was mainly in the statistics of public agencies, collected by the state boards of charities and correction, and with the dependency data of the federal census. Later the statistics of both public and private charities were considered. Central collection of statistics of both public and private agencies by state bureaus was advocated, and standard forms were suggested. Following the census of 1900 a committee of the Conference, under the chairmanship of John M. Glenn, pre-

pared for submission to Congress a bill providing for collection and publication by the Bureau of the Census of annual statistics relating to disadvantaged persons cared for by hospitals, benevolent and penal institutions, officers of courts, officials administering outdoor relief, and private charitable agencies. The bill was submitted to Congress, but being premature suffered an early death.

Important recent movements for better social work statistics span more than the last decade. In 1915 and 1918 committees of the American Association for Organizing Family Social Work, now the Family Welfare Association of America, published recommendations for standardizing statistics of family welfare societies. In 1917 an experiment in collection of monthly statistics of welfare work was made by I. M. Rubinow in the privately financed Bureau of Statistics of the Department of Public Welfare of New York City. This Bureau was short-lived, but Dr. Rubinow was able to compile monthly data with which he made the first attempt to construct a statistical index of dependency. In 1917 also the American Psychiatric Association, in cooperation with the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, adopted a uniform system of statistics for institutions for mental disease. In 1920 similar action was taken by the American Association for the Study of the Feebleminded. In 1923 a report on standardization of prison statistics was published by a committee of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology. In 1924 a committee of the National Organization for Public Health Nursing issued a report of a study setting up standard methods of cost accounting in nursing service.

Recent emphasis has been placed upon central collection of current statistical data and its timely publication for current use. As early as 1919, monthly statistics of New York City tuberculosis clinics had been published currently by the New York Association of Tuberculosis Clinics; these reports have since been continued and extended to other clinics by the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association. In 1926 the Russell Sage Foundation began monthly collection and publication of statistics of family case work, later including several other fields of work. In 1928 the Committee on Registration of Social Statistics, a joint committee of the Association of Community Chests and Councils and the University of Chicago, launched the most important of recent projects, the collection on a city-wide basis, through local central bureaus or agents, of monthly statistics of 24 types of social work in 29 cities. This collection was continued in 1929 for 32 cities. In 1930 more cities will be included and the project, it is expected, will be taken over by the federal Children's Bureau. This project had its origin in a comparative study of annual statistics of social agencies in 19 cities, made in 1925 by Raymond Clapp, of the Cleveland Welfare Federation.

In addition to the national associations already cited, the National Association of Legal Aid Organizations, Child Welfare League of America, and National Association of Travelers Aid Societies have taken action toward standardization of statistics within their fields. The last named association is now compiling comparative annual statistics of its numerous member agencies. In cooperation with the Committee on Registration of Social Statistics, three national associations—the Family Welfare Association of America, American Association of Hospital Social Workers, and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing—are preparing handbooks on statistical records for their fields. Among numerous other activities may be mentioned the collection in 1928 and 1929 of current statistics for several fields of work on a state-wide basis by the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania; the publication of annual statistics of hospitals and children's institutions in North and South Carolina since 1925 by the Duke Foundation; and a significant historical study by Willford I. King in New Haven, *Trends in Philanthropy* (1928),

in which statistics of the social and welfare agencies of the city were traced over 25 years. A similar study of trends in New York is now being made by the Welfare Council of that city. A definite tendency appears to be indicated in the recent establishment, by several councils of social agencies, of bureaus for the collection and study of local statistics of social work. Such services exist, or are about to be established, in New York, Cleveland, Detroit, Buffalo, Pittsburgh, Indianapolis, Denver, and Dayton. Reference should also be made to the distinctive work of the Division of Research of the Milbank Memorial Fund in the measurement of public health activities.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the National Bureau of Jewish Social Research developed a wide collection of current monthly statistics of Jewish agencies in this country and Canada; the state welfare department in New Jersey introduced a state-wide monthly collection of hospital statistics; and the Russell Sage Foundation began publication of comprehensive monthly statistics of outdoor relief covering 79 large cities in the United States and Canada. In the field of crime statistics important progress was made during the year. Two publications appeared: *Uniform Crime Reporting*, a manual for police departments prepared by Bruce Smith for the International Association of Chiefs of Police, and *Survey of Criminal Statistics in the United States* by Sam B. Warner for the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement. At the end of the year the International Association of Chiefs of Police was preparing to publish monthly bulletins of comparative police statistics for large and small cities throughout the United States. A painstaking experiment in evaluation of case work practices by statistical methods was made in a study of the family case work agencies of Cincinnati by E. F. Reed, of the Trounstine Foundation. This method, which yet requires proving, is described in a pamphlet of the Foundation published during the year.

Three important documents were in course of publication at the end of the year: a complete manual on statistics for child guidance clinics by Mary A. Clark, of the Commonwealth Fund, resulting from her work over several years in standardizing these statistics; a voluminous report presenting and interpreting the statistics gathered in 1928 by the Committee on Registration of Social Statistics; and a *Guide to the Statistics of Social Welfare in New York City* by the Welfare Council of New York City.

Legislation, 1929. During the year a bill was before Congress to establish on a permanent basis the series of annual statistics of institutions which has been begun by the Bureau of the Census. Another pending bill provided for establishing in the Department of Justice a permanent Division of Identification and Information, and authorized collection and distribution by that bureau of all types of crime statistics. Passage of this bill may mean assumption of the statistical work begun by the International Association of Chiefs of Police and the inauguration in the Department of Justice of a complete system of national criminal statistics. Inclusion in the federal appropriation bill for the fiscal year beginning July 1, 1930, of $45,000 for the statistical work of the Children's Bureau gives definite recognition to the potential development of that bureau as an important source for future social work statistics of national scope.

CONSULT: Schmeckebier, L. F.: *The Statistical Work of the National Government*, 1925; Lundberg, George A.: *Social Research* (Chapter XI), 1929; Bates, Sanford: "Criminal Records and Statistics," in *Journal of American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology*, May, 1928; Pollock, H. M.: "Annual National Statistics [of] Institutions for Insane, Feebleminded, Epileptic, and Delinquent," in *Welfare Magazine*, October, 1926; Frankel, E. J.: "Standardization of Social Statistics," in *Social Forces*, December, 1926; King, W. I.: "Report of Meeting on Central Collection of Social Statistics," in *Journal of American Statistical Association*, June, 1929; and Thomas, D. S.:

"Statistics in Social Research," in *American Journal of Sociology*, July, 1929.

RALPH HURLIN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 22. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 598.

STERILIZATION OF DEFECTIVES. *See* MENTAL DEFICIENCY.

STORY TELLING as a background for education and a factor in the recreational program has gradually come to the attention of the American community. From the traveling bard, who brought his ballads and epic tales to the hearth-fires of ancient villages, to the present story group about a settlement fireplace or a campfire, the same values appear for character training, interpretation of life, and cultural ends.

Schools were pioneers in using the story as a means of healthy emotional stimulus. Later those in charge of social settlements and children's rooms in public libraries began to establish story hours. The expressional value of the story was soon discovered, with the result that story dramatization, the writing of original stories and poetry, and the practice of oral story telling with older children was begun in many educational centers. Thus an alliance with the fine and applied arts has resulted. Scenery for the story play, costumes, musical instruments, and accessories are designed in schools, settlements, and wherever the spirit of the children's theater has permeated. The story-teller in costume brings an added touch of reality to the library or museum story hour. Foreign-language groups are taught English through hearing their native folk-lore in good translations. Children are being encouraged in a feeling for international fellowship through hearing the world's famous stories told with an emphasis upon the ideals and customs of the nations from which they came.

Child life is now being reached widely through story-telling agencies. This reincarnation of the ancient bard in modern life has necessitated a wider training for today's story-teller. Normal schools, schools for training librarians, and some schools of social work now offer courses in the theory and practice of story-telling. The faculty of a teachers' college frequently includes a specialist whose whole duty is the presentation of children's literature and the allied arts for the purpose of training students for positions in children's rooms of libraries, county library systems which make use of book vans, kindergarten-primary departments of public and private schools, and departments of community recreation.

Much of the literature used in story-telling prior to 1929 has either been discarded or revised. Poetry has been recognized as a necessary influence in childhood, with the result that excellent anthologies of poems are available for the story-teller, and also collections of creative verse written by school children themselves.

Developments and Events, 1929. During the year the practice of story-telling developed noticeably in its increased emphasis upon particular cultural and character-training values. Preschool laboratories in leading universities, institutions for teacher training, certain progressive schools, city playground and recreation departments, social settlements, and public libraries made surveys of books and stories, classified according to the ages for which they are adapted, the emotional needs of the children, and the accuracy and literary skill of the authors. These investigations, while representing differing objectives, were all based on the conclusion that children were never before so greatly in need of socializing influences and the stimulus to constructive imagination which are offered by a good story as in this mechanized and over-realistic age. During the year story-telling studies, begun in 1928, were put into experimental use, and new surveys were planned for 1930.

CONSULT: The following publications of the American Library Association: *The Children's*

Library Year Book No. 1 (includes story-telling as a method of directing children's reading, story service to the rural child, and allied topics), 1929; *Readers and Primers—A Selection for Use in Children's Rooms in Public Libraries*, 1929; and Davis, Mary Gould: *List of Stories for Telling* (revised edition), 1930. See also the following: *Stories—A List of Stories to Tell and Read Aloud*, edited by Mary Gould Davis (New York Public Library), 1927; Haven and Andrus: "Desirable Literature for Children of Kindergarten Age" (an evaluation of children's responses to selected stories), in the *Pedagogical Seminary*, September, 1929; The National Story League: *Year Book*, 1928–1929 (a comparative listing of stories recommended by branches of the league); and *Told Under the Green Umbrella—Old Tales for New Children* (26 favorite imaginative tales in their best versions, representing a twelve years' study by the International Kindergarten Union of the story interests of young children), 1930.

CAROLYN SHERWIN BAILEY

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 598.

STUDY HOMES FOR CHILDREN. *See* DELINQUENT CHILDREN, FOSTER HOME CARE; and DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN.

SUMMER CAMPS AND DAY OUTINGS. The summer camp has become an important part of the program of many organizations dealing not only with children but with adults. It provides opportunity for a complete change in environment, especially for the city dweller, and enables people to come in contact with nature under favorable conditions. Although commonly considered as for the use of children, camps are serving an increasing number of adults. The program varies with the type of camp. Nature study in varied forms receives much emphasis; also handicraft, especially projects which utilize materials found near the camp in the making of objects useful for camp life. Aquatic sports, hiking and tracking, athletic games, simple music activities, informal dramatics, and campfire stunts are included on most programs. *See* NATURE STUDY, ARTS AND CRAFTS, and HIKING.

Among the organizations providing summer camp facilities for large numbers of boys and girls are the following: the Boy Scouts of America, which in 1928 provided 595 camps serving more than 100,000 campers; Girl Scouts, with 423 camps in 1929, accommodating 42,163 campers; Camp Fire Girls, with 115 camps and 24,713 campers in 1929; the Young Men's Christian Association, which through its Boys' Department in 1928 provided approximately 500 camps where 101,165 boys spent 10 days or more, in addition to many others staying a briefer period; the Young Women's Christian Association, which in 1928 provided for 114,777 women and girls in 325 camps. Camps for boys and girls, and in some instances for adults, are also provided by organizations affiliated with the Jewish Welfare Board, by the Salvation Army, and by various church groups. Practically all of these camps are operated on a near-cost basis. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS and YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

Municipal camps, generally operated by the public recreation department of the city, are increasing in number and importance. More than 100 cities reported such camps in 1928. Some of them are for boys and girls only, but many of them are family camps serving all ages. Since they are usually located many miles away, transportation is often provided by the city. The charge made for transportation and for the stay in camp generally covers the cost and varies with the age of the camper. The average stay in camp is between one and two weeks. Los Angeles leads all cities with five camps—three family camps in the mountains, and week-end camps for boys and girls, both located in a large outlying city park. Several cities operate week-end or overnight camps for children or young people and provide the needed leadership for them. The Westchester County (N. Y.) Recreation Commission operates not only a camp for boys and girls but a recreation camp for mothers.

Small children may be brought to the camp, and separate dining rooms and dormitories are provided for them.

A development of unusual interest is that of the 4-H Club camps, promoted through the Extension Service of the United States Department of Agriculture. In 1928 there were 2,215 junior club encampments conducted, serving 155,534 boys and girls. Farm women in many states also enjoy the benefits of summer rest in vacation camps conducted under the auspices of state university extension departments and the United States Department of Agriculture. Although of only a few days' duration, these camps give the women a real vacation, as well as an opportunity to meet other women, to take part in discussions of home problems under expert leadership, and to enjoy a variety of recreational activities. There were 566 such encampments reported in 1928, serving 68,445 women. *See* Rural Organization for Recreation.

Increasingly settlements and other health, welfare, and charitable agencies, both public and private, are providing summer camps. These differ from the camps previously described in that they are primarily for the under-privileged child or adult. The charge for attending them, if any, is nominal, and in many cases the program is limited by the physical condition of the persons attending. *See* Social Settlements.

Day outings may be considered a substitute for camping. They provide opportunities for children and adults to spend a few hours away from the city, and are generally arranged for groups of city children who are taken to a place where they can play in the open country, in the woods, or along the seashore. A picnic lunch is an important part of the program. Often newspapers are responsible for activities of this type. As a rule they are not affiliated with the recreation agencies of their community and therefore are not represented by national agencies in the field of recreation. There is accordingly no assembled information about them. It is, however, quite evident that this activity has increased in recent years.

The importance of providing competent, trained leadership in camps is almost universally recognized, and many camp authorities believe that well-trained counselors are the most vital need of camping today. According to a compilation issued in 1928 by the Russell Sage Foundation (*Directory of Training Courses for Recreation Leaders*) camp training courses have been established to meet this need by 24 colleges and universities, in addition to special courses conducted in increasing numbers by national, state, and local organizations. A serious effort is being made to raise and maintain camp standards. Grading reports are used by the Boy Scout and Girl Scout organizations; minimum standards have been adopted for Camp Fire Girls' camps; the Children's Welfare Federation of New York City has prepared and published tentative standards for vacation homes and camps; and the Camp Directors' Association has appointed committees to prepare standards on various camp problems. In addition, several state departments of health have drawn up sanitary regulations which must be met by camps within their states. A comprehensive study of camp safety, with a view to preparing a camp safety code, was begun in 1929 under a fellowship provided by the National Bureau of Casualty and Surety Underwriters.

Consult: Weir, L. H.: *Camping Out—a Manual on Organized Camping* (National Recreation Association), 1924; Boy Scouts of America: *Camp Health, Safety, and Sanitation*, 1928; issues of *Camp Life;* annual handbooks of the Camp Directors Association, entitled *Camps* and *Camping;* Reese, Madge J.: "Vacation Camps give Rest and Instruction to Many Farm Women," in *Yearbook of Agriculture*, 1927; and Frysinger, Grace E. (compiler): *Farm Women's Camps—Central States* (United States Department of Agriculture), 1926.

George D. Butler

For related articles *see* Topical Articles, Classified, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* National Agencies, Classified, on page 598.

SUPERINTENDENTS OF THE POOR. *See* PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES.

SURVEYS. *See* SOCIAL SURVEYS.

SWIMMING. *See* BATHING PLACES.

TEMPORARY SHELTERS. *See* DETENTION HOMES, DEPENDENT AND NEGLECTED CHILDREN, and HOMELESS PERSONS.

TENEMENT HOUSE LAWS. *See* HOUSING.

TENEMENT HOUSE MANUFACTURE. *See* HOMEWORK IN INDUSTRY.

THE THEATRE. Recreation, as an organized activity in the field of social work, is concerned with two aspects of the stage—concerted efforts of citizens for the improvement of the commercial theatre; and local movements, usually referred to as little theatres or community playhouses, for the development of permanent dramatic organizations.

The most conspicuous organization in the first named field has been the Drama League of America, established in 1910. Its purpose was "to encourage the recognition of the drama as a high form of art and to support such plays as were deemed worthy, to disseminate information concerning the drama and its literature, to coordinate the amateur efforts of the country, to crowd out vicious plays by attending the good and building up audiences for them through drama study, reading circles and lectures." As a part of this program over 120 local Drama League Centers have been organized. Every state in the country is represented. The American Theater Association, established somewhat later, had a similar purpose, and in 1929 these organizations, together with the Church and Drama Association of New York, united to form the Church and Drama League of America. In addition to carrying forward the activities of its constituent bodies, the new agency aims to stimulate a widespread and intelligent interest in the drama as a social force and an educational influence. It maintains a reviewing service of plays on the professional stage, recommends desirable plays in a weekly bulletin, and is planning the organization of local constituencies which will be informed through the League's publications and lectures, and will guarantee audiences to support selected plays on tour. This is known as a system of "organized audiences."

Agencies which are active in this field, though not specializing in it, include the General Federation of Women's Clubs and the National Congress of Parents and Teachers. They have contributed to the encouragement of wholesome drama through lectures, studies, articles, and occasional bulletins.

The most striking development of recent years affecting the stage has been the little theatre or community playhouse movement. Its growth and spread since the organization of the Hull House Players and the Chicago New Theatre about 1907 have been due in part to the breakdown of "the road." When the leading Broadway successes ceased to tour, communities were thrown on their own resources for spoken drama. At the same time what is known as the "new movement" in the theatre invaded the United States, with its emphasis on experimentation, production for artistic effects rather than for commercial profits, small playhouses, and the admission of artists and enthusiasts into a field previously controlled by professional producers and actors.

The little theatre groups have been motivated by this movement and have met the local demand for drama when Broadway ceased to supply it. Today these groups are well established, many of them owning playhouses better and more modern than most professional theatres—as in Dallas, Pasadena, and Cleveland. A season of plays is presented including the latest Broadway successes, classics and often

new plays before their Broadway presentations. Therefore, though these theatres are not professional in the sense of commercial or profit-making, their productions are often better acted and staged than Broadway plays, and are professional in that their presentations reach the standard accepted as such. The buildings are usually owned by the organization. It engages a paid director and in some cases additional members of the working staff. The actors usually receive no remuneration, though they are often well trained and have had experience. The Cleveland Playhouse and the Kenneth Sawyer Goodman Theatre in Chicago pay the members of their acting companies, and other playhouses often engage professional guest artists. There are numerous amateur groups producing plays, but they are not organized for dramatics alone, their productions are not regular, and they are often given to "raise money." For that quite different activity *see* AMATEUR DRAMATICS.

CONSULT: Issues of the *Bulletin* of the Church and Drama League of America; *Drama Calendar* of the New York Drama League: *Drama Magazine* (Drama League of America); *Bulletin* of the Parents' Association of New York City; and bulletins issued by Drama League Centers in Boston, Chicago, Pittsburgh, Pasadena, Milwaukee, Los Angeles, and Worcester.

SUE ANN WILSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

TRADE UNIONS. *See* ORGANIZED LABOR.

TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR GIRLS or BOYS. *See* DELINQUENT GIRLS, INSTITUTION CARE; and DELINQUENT BOYS, INSTITUTION CARE.

TRANSIENTS. *See* HOMELESS PERSONS.

TRANSPORTATION OF CLIENTS IN SOCIAL WORK. For 29 years the furnishing of free or reduced transportation to clients has been regulated by agreements among agencies engaged in social case work. These agreements originated in the National Conference of Jewish Charities in 1900, and in the National Conference of Charities and Correction in 1902. The practice known as "passing on" was at that time very common. If applicants for assistance were found to be non-residents all help was refused and free transportation furnished, instead, to a place to which they wished to go, or where they claimed to have resided last or previously; or they were frequently sent to the nearest city in the direction of their former homes, the assumption being that they would thus be passed on to their destination from one city to another. Nothing could be farther from the ideals of social case work than this practice. *See* SOCIAL CASE WORK. The unwisdom and even the cruelty of the procedure was demonstrated by an accumulation of cases, and the agreements mentioned were the result. The wording of the two agreements and their supplementary rules differed somewhat, but in their essentials they were the same. No applicants were to be given transportation until the agency concerned had learned, by telegraphing if necessary, what their situation would be at the proposed destination—whether they would have employment, whether relatives there or friends stood ready to support them, or whether they had "legal residence" there and so could properly be assisted by public authorities there, as by admission to public institutions if in need of institutional care. Free transportation, when decided upon, was to be furnished direct to the destination. In no case was passing on to be practiced.

In its earlier years the agreement originating in the National Conference of Social Work was informally administered, but from 1910 to 1921 the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation acted as agent of a committee appointed by the National Conference for this purpose. In the latter year the administration of the agreement was transferred to a group of national agencies operating in social case work fields—the Child Welfare League of

America, Family Welfare Association of America, National Council of Church Missions of Help, National Association of Travelers Aid Societies, and the National Tuberculosis Association. Annual signing of the agreement is required of all agencies in the group. There are 767 signatory agencies. The agreement among Jewish agencies has been administered from the start by a transportation committee appointed by the National Conference of Jewish Social Service. All members of that Conference are required, without signing the agreement, to adhere to its regulations. For the settlement of disagreements between agencies in relation to particular cases where transportation has been furnished, both groups have established machinery for deciding the points involved. Both have published a number of their decisions.

Developments and Events, 1929. Early in the year steps were taken for closer cooperation between those responsible for the two agreements. Proposals were made for amalgamating the committees, and plans for such a change were under consideration at the end of the year.

CONSULT: Publications of the Committee on Transportation of Allied National Agencies and of the Transportation Committee of the National Conference of Jewish Social Service.

FRED S. HALL

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

TRAVELERS AID is organized assistance for travelers who need counsel, material aid, or protection. It is social case work for those who are in difficulty or may get into difficulty while traveling from one community or country to another. In this field of work the following groups are regarded as travelers: Those who are in transit from one place or country to another; those who come to a city for an undefined or temporary stay; those who plan permanent residence in a city but are not yet connected with its resources; those whose plans for leaving a city have been formulated, by themselves or by some interested agency, before coming to the attention of a travelers aid agency; residents returning to a city, if in need of assistance; and those who present social problems which require the care of a resident agency to which they may be referred by a travelers aid representative.

The service requires knowledge of the individual needs of travelers and of the resources suitable and available for assistance in the places where they first find themselves in difficulty, the places from which they have come or to which they are going. Essential also are training and experience in social case work in order that wise use may be made of available information. The service further involves community planning, since the ability of individuals to maintain themselves depends to some extent upon the social resources of the city.

History and Present Status. The first recorded work of the general type here described was organized in 1851 in St. Louis as the outcome of a bequest of $1,000,000, left by Bryan Mullanphy for the purpose of assisting persons "traveling to the West." In 1866 the Boston Young Women's Christian Association distributed notices throughout its city warning young women who were traveling alone. In 1885 the Society of Friends in New York City employed a worker for the protection of travelers, and at about the same time the Woman's Bible Society in New York employed two persons for such work. In 1887 the Girls' Friendly Society in Boston employed a worker to meet incoming boats. In 1893, during the Chicago World's Fair, the Young Women's Christian Association of Chicago operated a travelers aid service. In 1890 the Council of Jewish Women in New York arranged to assist Jews arriving at the port. In the Southern states, Atlanta has been giving service since 1900. The Panama-Pacific Exposition occasioned the organization of the first work

of this type on the Pacific coast, at San Francisco in 1905. The first "all-sectarian" committee was organized by Grace Hoadley Dodge in 1905. This later became the Travelers Aid Society of New York City.

Between 1900 and 1917 the Young Women's Christian Association was the largest single factor in organizing the service. During the World War, because of the unusual need for such service, War Camp Community Service and many other organizations engaged in it. The development of the unified, nation-wide movement as organized at present has been due to a realization of the all-sectarian character of the work, the need for leadership and organization on that basis, and the need for organized inter-city relationship and responsibility. Simultaneously there has been a development from a service of information and protection only into a comprehensive program of social case work in which all the earlier functions are included. The national agency in the field, the National Association of Travelers Aid Societies, was organized in 1917.

Travelers aid societies were in operation during 1929 in 110 communities. In 45 other communities full-time travelers aid service was given under the auspices of other agencies. In 1,862 additional centers cooperating representatives of travelers aid societies gave similar service on a part-time basis. This service consisted chiefly in meeting travelers in accordance with appointments made by societies elsewhere, investigating the resources of persons stranded in cities where there are active societies, and giving follow-up care to persons returned by societies to a given community. The same service is attempted as that given by travelers aid societies, except that the work is on a part-time basis, and there is no worker stationed regularly at the terminal stations. The full-time staffs of 153 of the 155 agencies mentioned numbered 545, and the expenditures in 114 cities amounted to $822,554. During the year service was given to 1,117,585 persons. The problems which present themselves most frequently in this field are unstable family conditions, unemployment, changes in the demand for labor, physical or mental disability, ill-advised movement, lack of funds, ignorance of traveling conditions, and the special problems of runaways and immigrant brides.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. There is increasing demand for workers who have had training in schools of social work, particularly in social case work, mental hygiene, and community organization. Institutes for training are conducted by most local societies in large cities, and by the national association. Methods of short-time treatment based on social case work principles, improved methods of organization, recording, and travel-service procedure constitute the principal subjects of discussion.

Developments and Events, 1929. In several cities travelers aid societies participated during the year in community planning for non-residents through joint committees of agencies and committees organized by councils of social agencies. *See* Homeless Persons. Added responsibility for social case work with all non-residents of their communities was placed upon travelers aid societies by mutual agreement in several cities. To an increased extent agencies organized primarily in fields outside of social case work made use of travelers aid societies where social case treatment for non-residents was needed.

Studies in progress during the year covered the following subjects in the cities named: non-residents, in Washington, D. C.; fiancee cases, in New York City; service to immigrants, in Salt Lake City; the transient problem, in Minneapolis; bus stations, in Cleveland and Pittsburgh; problems arising in traction terminals, in Indianapolis; and the care of the older girl and service to immigrants, in Boston. A special case study was made in St. Louis.

Consult: Fosdick and Jones: *A Study of Travelers' Aid*, 1921; and the following publica-

tions of the National Association of Travelers Aid Societies—annual reports of the committee on field work and of the committee on service to immigrants; a series of pamphlets containing addresses given at conventions; the *Travelers Aid Manual* (a document amended at intervals by executives in the travelers aid field), and the periodicals of the National Association.

HARRIET E. ANDERSON

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19.

TRUANCY. *See* COMPULSORY EDUCATION.

TUBERCULOSIS. During the 24 years from 1904 to 1928 the death rate from tuberculosis in the United States declined from 200 to 79.2 per 100,000 of the population. Tuberculosis is now no longer the leading cause of death at all age periods. But it is still the most deadly of all diseases between the ages of 15 and 45. Moreover, it is estimated that for each of the 100,000 deaths which occur annually from the disease there are from six to nine living, active cases. This would make from 600,000 to 900,000 living cases of tuberculosis each year in the country as a whole, and to this figure should be added an estimated equal number of latent and potential cases. Thus, in spite of the enormous reduction in the death rate, tuberculosis is still a public health problem of major importance.

History and Present Status. The first advance in the campaign against this dreaded disease was made in 1882, when Dr. Robert Koch, working in Berlin, discovered the germ cause of tuberculosis. Within two years Dr. Edward Livingston Trudeau, at Saranac Lake, New York, had painstakingly and with many difficulties duplicated and verified Koch's experiments. The little red cottage at Saranac, where Trudeau in 1884 opened his one-room institution, has ever since been a Mecca for workers seeking truth in this field.

During the next 20 years the alluring study that Koch had opened up was pursued by other pioneers, among them Dr. Vincent Y. Bowditch in Boston, Dr. Lawrence F. Flick in Philadelphia, Dr. Hermann M. Biggs in New York, and Dr. Theodore B. Sachs in Chicago. The emphasis of these leaders was placed almost entirely upon treatment, and treatment at that time consisted, as Trudeau had demonstrated, of a regimen in which rest, fresh air, and good food were the three salient features.

As early as the year 1892 Dr. Flick had established the Pennsylvania Tuberculosis Society, the first organization of its kind in the world, and in 1902 the Tuberculosis Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, forerunner of the present New York Tuberculosis and Health Association, had been formed. In Chicago, Boston, Washington, Rochester, Buffalo, and a few other places interest in organized tuberculosis work had also been manifest. In 1903 Henry Phipps provided funds to establish a research institute in Philadelphia for the purpose of studying tuberculosis in its varied aspects, the first organization of its kind in America. In 1904 the National Tuberculosis Association was formed, uniting in one body these scattered groups and others interested in the subject. The Sixth International Congress on Tuberculosis in 1908 gave further impetus to the development of organized tuberculosis work. In 1910 the American Red Cross and the National Tuberculosis Association united for the conduct of an annual Christmas seal sale, thus furnishing funds for local, state, and national tuberculosis associations. Under the policy then adopted and still in force, the bulk of the money derived from the sale remained in the state or local community where the funds were raised. For about 10 years after 1910 there was a careful development of state tuberculosis associations, with a consequent growth in local associations. The state and local organizations were autonomous, and were affiliated with the National Association. These associations soon realized the need for hospitals, nurses, clinics, and open air schools. That need was demonstrated

through surveys, health education and the organization and the promotion of public opinion, as a result of which sanatoria were built, nurses obtained, and clinics and case-finding activities established. The primary aim of these non-official agencies has been to organize community sentiment, to demonstrate the value of the proposed activities and institutions, and then to transfer them to local or state governments. Such demonstrations as the Framingham Health and Tuberculosis Demonstration, conducted by the National Tuberculosis Association at Framingham, Mass., from 1917 to 1924, pointed out many useful features for local programs.

Anti-tuberculosis associations in the United States increased in number from 20 in 1905 to 1,500 in 1928. During approximately the same period, institutions for the treatment of tuberculosis increased from 115 to 608, and the bed capacity from less than 10,000 to 72,720.

In 1904 there was no general recognition of the community's official responsibility in the control of tuberculosis. Biggs in New York as early as 1897 had established the principle that a city health department should take definite responsibility for the control of tuberculosis as a communicable disease, and the New York Department had made significant strides in that direction. In 1895 the Massachusetts Legislature made an appropriation for the first state sanatorium for the treatment of tuberculosis in the United States. By 1904 there were 19 public sanatoria or hospitals for tuberculosis, including three federal, four state, four county, and eight municipal institutions. With the increase of tuberculosis associations and the consequent growth in community sentiment with regard to the subject, the development of such institutions was so rapid that by 1928 there were 329 public tuberculosis hospitals, with a bed capacity of 53,922, constituting more than two-thirds of the total bed capacity for tuberculosis in the United States. With tuberculosis clinics also the trend has been distinctly toward an increase of clinics under health departments and other official agencies. In public health nursing there is a similar tendency. Child health education, begun in 1916 by the National Tuberculosis Association, has brought boards of education and school authorities, state and local, into close alignment with the tuberculosis associations. At the present time child health education and school health service have been extended to a very considerable proportion of the school children of the country. *See* Child Hygiene and School Hygiene.

Because the control of tuberculosis is ultimately an official function, tuberculosis associations have consistently promoted the organization of public health departments, municipal, county, and state. In many instances the public agencies have been established as the result of movements initiated by tuberculosis associations; in many other cases tuberculosis associations have been the most influential community backers these agencies have had. The purposes of the various anti-tuberculosis agencies, public and private, may be expressed briefly as follows: (a) To prevent and control mass infection from tuberculosis, either by segregating the foci of infection or removing the contacts; (b) to discover, as far as possible, all cases of tuberculosis in each community, whether latent, potential, active, juvenile or adult; (c) to provide adequate treatment for all types of cases with a view to restoring as many persons as possible to normal community life: (d) to create through popular education a health consciousness or health opinion in the community, so that the support of the public for programs of anti-tuberculosis work may be forthcoming; (e) to study the manifestations of tuberculosis in the individual and in the community, in order to furnish the necessary knowledge on which sound programs may be built; and (f) to organize community activity, local, state and national, for the furtherance of these aims and purposes.

Opinions with regard to the control of tuberculosis have changed markedly in the

last 25 years. In the field of treatment there has been a rapid advance since 1920 in the development of such aids as chest surgery and heliotherapy. Operations such as artificial pneumothorax, phrenicotomy, thoracoplasty, designed to put the diseased lung artificially at rest, have prolonged the lives of thousands and have returned many to useful service who would have been helpless invalids. Sunlight, both natural and artificial, has proved a great aid in treatment, particularly of childhood types of tuberculosis.

Research relating to the after-care of patients has established many new techniques. Sheltered employment, begun successfully in 1913 by the Altro Workshops in New York, has been extended until there are now at least six institutions of this sort. *See* SHELTERED WORKSHOPS. More careful follow-up work is being carried on in a constantly increasing number of institutions. The placement of discharged patients has been furthered greatly through research carried on by the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association and other agencies.

In the field of medical research new concepts have been established within the last seven years as the result of the careful plan developed by the Medical Research Committee of the National Tuberculosis Association, through which the facilities of 20 different university laboratories are coordinated and allied. Among the newer and more important findings may be mentioned those that deal with the chemistry of the tubercle bacillus. The rôle, moreover, of the monocyte cell as the host of the parasitic tubercle bacillus has been definitely established, as has also the chemical action of certain constituents of the tubercle bacillus, notably the sugars, in relation to the growth of the germ and its relation to the monocyte cell. Hope is expressed that through further studies along this line the intimate relation between the tubercle bacillus and the monocyte cell can be broken artificially, thereby paving the way for a specific curative treatment of tuberculosis. These and similar studies are tending to modify the program of tuberculosis associations, national, state, and local. In childhood tuberculosis, particularly, new concepts are being developed so rapidly that it is difficult for workers in the field to keep up with the findings of the laboratory and the bedside.

Training Opportunities. The present program consists, first, of the employment of three or more junior staff members in a semi-apprenticeship relation on the staff of the National Tuberculosis Association; second, of a series of institutes of two weeks' duration in Philadelphia, Minneapolis, Columbus, and Nashville dealing particularly with methods and programs of tuberculosis work; third, of home study courses under Columbia University; fourth, of special short institutes in Iowa City and several cities in the South for special groups such as board members, seal sale committee members, and the like.

Developments and Events, 1929. The most significant event of the year was the celebration of the twenty-fifth anniversary of the National Tuberculosis Association at Atlantic City in May. Of the 197 men who participated in the three meetings that led up to the organization of the Association, 40 were present at the Founders' Dinner. Momentous also was the announcement by the Committee on Medical Research of the development of a pure tuberculin, and of the discovery of certain new chemical fractions in the tubercle bacillus.

During 1929 2,438 new beds for tuberculosis were added. Among the new institutions were a state sanatorium in Oregon, five county sanatoria, and five tuberculosis units at general or isolation hospitals. The new sanatorium of the National Vaudeville Artists at Saranac Lake added one more to the number of sanatoria that are operated for members of special groups and fraternal organizations. Among the new county sanatoria may be mentioned the Stark County Sanatorium at Canton, Ohio, and the Oneida County Sanatorium, Utica, N. Y., each with more than 100 beds; and Valley View, the

200-bed county institution at Paterson, N. J., built at a cost of over three million dollars. In April the national, state, and local tuberculosis associations conducted for the second year their early diagnosis campaign. This covered nearly every state in the Union, special emphasis being placed on the child in relation to tuberculosis.

Studies were in progress during the year under the auspices of the Committee on Social Research of the National Tuberculosis Association on the following subjects: tuberculosis in industrial establishments; tuberculosis mortality among young women 15 to 24 years of age; and health in the Harlem district of New York City, as reflected in its vital statistics.

CONSULT: Knopf, S. A.: *A History of the National Tuberculosis Association*, 1922; Jacobs, Philip Peter: *The Tuberculosis Worker*, 1923; Otis, Edward Osgood: *Tuberculosis, Its Cause, Cure, and Prevention*, 1918; the transactions of the National Tuberculosis Association, 1905 to 1929, its periodicals and other publications, and its annotated bibliography, *Books on Tuberculosis*.

PHILIP P. JACOBS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

UNEMPLOYMENT has long since ceased to be the problem of the unemployed person alone. The inevitable social disruption which it brings has become so familiar that unemployment is now definitely recognized as a community problem. In recent years it is also recognized that the regularization of operation is a legitimate obligation upon industrial management which is increasingly aware of its stake in the maintenance of the purchasing power of wage-earners.

The difficulties in dealing with unemployment are complicated by the vagueness of existing knowledge concerning it. The number of unemployed cannot be estimated with a satisfying degree of confidence in terms of existing data. Estimates vary widely with the method of measurement used and with the definition of unemployment. An attempt to measure unemployment is faced by two alternatives: (1) indirect measurement —estimating the margin between the total supply of labor and actual employment; (2) direct measurement—counting the unemployed by means of a special census or by direct registration. In the United States, where there is no adequate continued registration of the unemployed, measures of unemployment have been derived in one way or another from statistics of employment. Although statisticians tend to confine their efforts to measuring changes in the volume of employment, this is by no means a substitute for unemployment measurement. A sharp falling off of employment in one industry may be offset by an increase of employment in another, the result being that there is no net decrease of employment when both industries are considered together. Reasonably exact measurement of unemployment is needed to gauge the effectiveness of such means of control as may be devised, and to guide protective and relief programs.

History and Present Status. Every period of unemployment has brought its lessons—if not teaching what to do, at least demonstrating what to avoid doing. During the depression of 1894 community activity was centered in large central relief committees operating with a central fund. "Made work," frequently of an unsuitable sort, was supplied to applicants. In the next depression emergency committees were discouraged and existing welfare agencies expanded their own programs of relief and emergency employment. The brief period of unemployment in 1914 witnessed increased activity on the part of social agencies, settlements, and educational clubs, but there was often duplication of effort by neighborhood agency and central authority.

The last two unemployment crises have witnessed not only community but state and federal activity. In 1921 President Harding called an unemployment conference to consider emergency measures and measures of

prevention. This conference urged mayors of American cities to take prompt leadership in organizing emergency committees on unemployment. The mayors' committees were generally less satisfactory than spontaneous committees from among groups whose natural interests brought them in continuous contact with the problems. The functions of these committees were to study the situation and form general plans, to give publicity to existing needs, to administer and coordinate employment services and relief, and to encourage employment of the jobless by individuals, firms, agencies, and municipal departments.

Such in general are the relief measures adopted by volunteer committees in dealing with emergencies in the absence of programs of prevention or control. Naturally the organizations most conspicuously identified with these measures have been the public and private family welfare agencies of the country. A gradual crystallization of opinion has been influenced in large degree by the writings of the late Mary E. Richmond. The dangers of large central funds for unemployment relief or emergency work are shown graphically by her much quoted illustration of a crowded theater when a cry of fire is raised. If all exits are locked except the main one, panic results. Likewise, publicity concerning large central sources of assistance in an unemployment crisis tends to detract attention from such normal means of escape as migration, change of occupation, part-time work, savings, credit, friendly assistance from individuals or from relief agencies, and emergency opportunities for work. Publicity given to local relief funds also tends to attract large numbers of the unemployed from elsewhere. In place of such methods there should be organized cooperative registration of applications for aid and opportunities for relief work without publicity.

The causes of unemployment are inseparably bound up with the problems of industrial instability. Employment fluctuations must be attributed to seasonal movements in market demand, to cyclical changes in business activity, and to those irregularities in industrial progress which permanently modify the structure, technology, and geography of industry. Since the causes of unemployment are manifold and interactive, it is impossible to designate certain preventive or remedial measures as specific in dealing with particular types of unemployment. The problem must be viewed in its entirety, and must be attacked in various ways and from different angles.

Experts have long agreed that much of the slack in employment may be taken up by means of a coordinated national system of employment exchanges which will make it easier for every job to find a worker. At present separate reserves of labor are maintained by industries and localities that could draw upon a common reserve. *See* Employment Agencies. The control of seasonal employment is primarily a problem of market analysis—spreading work over the year instead of operating on a hand-to-mouth production schedule. Individual plants and industries have dealt successfully with these problems, but further experiment and research are needed to demonstrate whether regularization on a plant or on an industrial basis gets at the roots of unemployment at large. Cyclical unemployment presents delicate problems of economic balance and of monetary and credit control to which more scientific attention is now being given than ever before.

Even if the labor market were perfectly organized, with seasonal fluctuations eliminated and the business cycle substantially under control, certain causes of unemployment would continue to operate in the form of dislocations due to the changing consumption habits of the people, to the decline of old industries and the growth of new ones, and to improvements in industrial efficiency which temporarily or permanently reduce the amount of labor required in particular industries. Strictly speaking there is no such thing as "technological unemployment" existing apart from unemployment in general. The impact of technical changes upon em-

ployment may be felt in the form of (1) a shift in the type of worker required in a given industry, or in the form of (2) a temporary or permanent reduction in the number of workers required in a given industry. Thus it is entirely possible that technological changes in individual industries or plants may affect the identity of the unemployed without affecting their numbers. More important, however, is the influence of changing productivity as one of the leading factors in determining the amount of employment and unemployment. Technological progress has been accelerated at various times in the past as at present; whether there is anything new about the present technological situation depends upon the extent to which American industry can take care of increased productivity by expanding its foreign markets to compensate for decreased elasticity in its domestic markets.

To mitigate the social effects of "residual" unemployment it is argued that a system of national employment exchanges and effective regularization of industrial operation must be supplemented by planned protection of the individual worker from that unemployment which neither the individual nor society can prevent. Protection against unavoidable unemployment means insurance or relief in some form. It is urged that industry should set aside reserves against slack times, either maintaining employment or spreading out compensation to its workers in terms of an annual wage, or that the worker and the state should share the cost of protection as in some European countries. Notable among voluntary industrial insurance plans is the scheme now in operation in the men's clothing industry in Chicago. State unemployment insurance has as yet won few supporters in the United States.

During the current depression urgent stress has been laid upon the importance of public construction. Forward planning of public works depends upon adequate forecasting and the quick availability of a public reserve for construction.

Development and Events, 1929. The spring, summer, and early fall of the year marked continued steady recovery from the semi-depression which had set in during the preceding winter of 1927–1928. In November, however, employment fell off sharply, signaling the beginnings of the most severe depression that has been felt since 1921. Again an emergency found the country without adequate information regarding the volume of unemployment. Widely divergent guesses regarding the extent of earlier unemployment had been made during 1928. These were critically summarized and new unemployment estimates up to 1928 were developed in the comprehensive report made by the National Bureau of Economic Research in May, 1929, to the Committee on Recent Economic Changes of the President's Commission on Unemployment.

Persistent agitation for more adequate information regarding unemployment culminated in Congressional provision for an unemployment inquiry in the 1930 census of population. The census of 1930 will undertake to distinguish only those unemployed at the time of the census, with a minimum of information regarding the causes and extent of unemployment. The plan allows for a separate tabulation for every person who usually works at a gainful occupation but was not at work on the day before the enumerator's visit—or on the last regular working day. There is sharp disagreement regarding the adequacy of the final schedule and procedure developed for this census, since many modifications of the preliminary recommendations of experts were made by the Census Bureau on grounds of expediency. Early releases of partial returns from the census are subjected to sharp criticism as this volume goes to press.

Local censuses of unemployment were taken during the year in Baltimore, Philadelphia, Cincinnati, Buffalo, and Urbana-Champaign, Ill. Other cities are inaugurating similar surveys, a number of them to be repeated at periodic intervals. These local investigations furnish evidence of in-

creasing popular desire for reliable current facts regarding unemployment. They will furnish interesting supplementary checks against the national census of unemployment.

Toward the close of the year there was widespread organized community effort to study unemployment and to anticipate its recurrence by the development of means of prevention and control. Local committees were usually more representative than in previous depressions, including in their membership industrial and labor leaders, public officials, social workers, experts, and scientific investigators. A permanent committee on the stabilization of employment was appointed by the City Manager in Cincinnati prior to the depression. Working through numerous subcommittees, it successfully dealt with emergency unemployment during the winter while at work at the more difficult task of devising means of prevention and regularization. In Philadelphia a Chamber of Commerce subcommittee on unemployment, also organized before the depression, cooperated closely with the Federal Reserve Bank, the Department of Industrial Research of the Wharton School, the Board of Education, and other civic bodies in the development of a far-reaching program for regularization of employment and the decrease of unemployment. The Cincinnati and Philadelphia plans are furnishing the pattern for local organization in many localities.

In New York State an Advisory Committee on Employment Problems completed an intensive analysis of the operations of typical employment offices and has submitted recommendations regarding the improvement of the state employment service. Shortly after the close of the year—in January, 1930—Governor Roosevelt appointed a state Committee on the Stabilization of Employment to "assist the employers of the state in a gradual progress toward stabilization based on authentic American business experience and rising out of and adapted to their own local industrial problems." Organized state activity is also forecast in Ohio and in Wisconsin. The coming two years will show whether these local plans will end in paper schemes or whether they hold the promise of more permanent and effective attack upon unemployment.

Recognizing the emergency, President Hoover in December utilized the machinery of the Chamber of Commerce of the United States to create a National Business Survey Conference to recommend and organize courses of action looking toward the maintenance of normal business activity. Through this Conference the administration called upon industrial leaders to maintain employment and production at a high level, at the same time developing a nation-wide program for the acceleration of public works. During the year the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics expanded its employment and payroll statistics to include samples from such important non-manufacturing employment groups as mining, public utilities, wholesale and retail trade, hotels, canning and preserving. It is too early to judge the adequacy of the rather small samples included in the Bureau's figures.

The President's Committee on Recent Economic Changes is undertaking the development of a continuing series of studies stressing analysis of the techniques of economic balance. A study of employment and public works and several other related investigations are being carried to completion for the Committee by the National Bureau of Economic Research. An interesting development of the year was the expansion of the Russell Sage Foundation's comprehensive monthly reports showing fluctuations in the amount of relief and the number of cases handled by a large number of relief agencies, public and private. *See* Statistics of Social Work. In April a conference on the regularization of employment was held at the University of Pennsylvania in which a number of experts participated; a continuing program of conference and discussion of technical phases of unemployment research is to be developed by the

Social Science Research Council, and a permanent unemployment study is to be organized at Swarthmore College.

Three important bills relating to unemployment were pending in Congress at the end of the year. They were introduced in the Senate by Robert F. Wagner, of New York, proposing a national system of employment exchanges, a plan for improved unemployment statistics, and a national reserve for the subsidy of public work. These bills are being opposed by the National Association of Manufacturers. Without administration support or sanction their fate is uncertain.

It is apparent that recurring depressions have found the industrial community increasingly aware of the real nature of the unemployment problem and of the inadequacy of emergency measures. The President's Unemployment Conference of 1921, the activities of its subcommittees, and the constructive program of the Department of Commerce have contributed much to the change in point of view which characterizes the attitude shown toward the present depression. Wartime industrial organization has left as a legacy a better understanding of the possibilities of coordinated effort. While the present widespread concern about unemployment persists, the time is ripe for the more effective control of employment and an understanding of the problems involved.

CONSULT: Beveridge, Sir William H.: *Unemployment a Problem of Industry*, 1909; Klein, Philip: *The Burden of Unemployment*, 1923; Lescohier, Don D.: *The Labor Market*, 1919; Lewisohn, Draper, Commons, and Lescohier: *Can Business Prevent Unemployment?*, 1925; Feldman, Herman: *The Regularization of Employment*, 1925; Family Welfare Association of America: *The Time to Plan is Now*, 1929; Richmond, Mary E.: "Emergency Relief in Times of Unemployment," in *The Long View*, to be published in 1930; Harrison and Associates: *Public Employment Offices*, 1924; Hurlin and Berridge: *Employment Statistics for the United States*, 1926; Lubin, Isador: *The Absorption of the Unemployed by American Industry*, 1929; Myers, Robert J.: "Occupational Readjustment of Displaced Skilled Workmen," in *Journal of Political Economy*, August, 1929; National Bureau of Economic Research: *Recent Economic Changes in the United States*, 1929, Vol. 2, especially pp. 466–478; *Report of the President's Conference on Unemployment* (Government Printing Office), 1921; Douglas, Paul H.: *Real Wages in the United States*, 1930, Part IV, pp. 403–461; *Survey Graphic—Unemployment Number*, April, 1929; *Hearings before a Sub-Committee of the Committee on Commerce, United States Senate*, 1930; *Hearings before the Committee on the Judiciary, House of Representatives*, 1930.

MEREDITH B. GIVENS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

UNITED CHARITIES. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

UNITED HEBREW CHARITIES. *See* JEWISH SOCIAL WORK.

UNITED STATES CHILDREN'S BUREAU. *See* CHILD WELFARE ACTIVITIES OF THE FEDERAL GOVERNMENT.

UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENTS. *See* SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS.

UNMARRIED MOTHERS. *See* CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK.

VENEREAL DISEASES. This article considers only the two most serious of the venereal diseases, syphilis and gonorrhea. Wherever practicable, physicians and health authorities avoid referring to these diseases by the inclusive term "venereal diseases"; instead they specify each by its scientific name, thus emphasizing the entirely different infections to which anyone may be exposed. The American Social Hygiene Association and the United States Public Health Service, in cooperation with many local agencies, have studied the prevalence of these diseases among about 17,758,000 of the population of the United States. The combined case rate for gonorrhea and syphilis

under professional medical treatment, assumed on the basis of the census method employed, was 9.65 per 1,000 males and 4.85 per 1,000 females, the rate for the two sexes together being 7.29 per 1,000. The combined rate for the Negro population was 11 per 1,000 and for the white population 8 per 1,000.

Prevalence surveys and special studies of unlicensed and unethical medical practitioners indicate that many sufferers from syphilis or gonorrhea are being treated by druggists and quack doctors. There are evidently also many people infected with syphilis or gonorrhea who receive no medical care whatever. These factors partly account for the wide difference between the figures given above and those for the second million men drafted during the World War, among whom 56.7 per 1,000 were found by clinical examination alone to have syphilis, gonorrhea or chancroid. It should be remembered also that the venereal disease census studies included persons of all ages not separated into groups; and the draft army, chiefly men between 21 and 30—the period at which venereal diseases are most frequent.

A study of urban Negroes in 1929 showed that approximately 18 per cent of those examined were infected with syphilis. Another study of 2,300 plantation Negroes in a southern state indicated that 24 per cent were so infected, and out of 4,005 Negro school children examined in the same state, 10 per cent were found to be infected. In 30 different clinics with a total of 58,000 expectant mothers, the number of those with syphilitic infections varied between 3 per cent and 23.3 per cent, according to the social and economic status of the specific clinic group. Evidence has been steadily accumulating to show that when treatment is instituted before the middle of pregnancy the results are satisfactory in 90 to 95 per cent of cases. On the other hand, when no treatment is received pregnancy ends disastrously in about 80 per cent of the cases; that is, the baby is stillborn, dies in early infancy, or is a congenital syphilitic. A recent estimate has been advanced that 2 per cent of all children attending public clinics are suffering from congenital syphilis. Opinions of medical authorities support the belief that two out of every thirteen deaths are caused by syphilis. This disease is responsible for many heart and kidney diseases, diseases of the blood vessels, and serious vision impairment. It is the cause, so far as known, of all cases of general paralysis and locomotor ataxia. Gonorrhea is more prevalent than syphilis, and its effects are equally disastrous but of a different character. It is a common cause of blindness, of sterility and pelvic inflammations in the female, of stricture in the male, and of vulvo-vaginitis in little girls. Arthritis and rheumatism are common complications, while involvement of the pericardium or pleura, though rare, is usually fatal.

At least $15,000,000 is spent annually on medical care in public clinics, of ambulatory patients suffering from these diseases. Many states and some cities operate laboratories and provide laboratory aid in the diagnosis of syphilis and gonorrhea for public institutions and private practitioners. There are now over 600 state, county, or city treatment clinics. No reliable data are available on cost of hospitalization of bed patients except in the case of some special institutions. About $11,270,000 is estimated to be spent annually on institutional care of 12,300 patients suffering from general paresis and tabes dorsalis. In addition, the loss of wage-earning capacity and the cost of industrial accidents due to syphilis and gonorrhea make these diseases two of the greatest financial burdens of the nation. In a recent inquiry 17 states and many county and municipal health departments reported divisions of social hygiene or venereal diseases, while 14 states handle this problem under their bureaus of communicable diseases. All states have laws requiring some form of reporting syphilis and gonorrhea. Gains are being made in obtaining helpful compliance with such laws. There were 195,559 cases of

syphilis and 156,544 cases of gonorrhea reported to state health departments in 1929.

The public under leadership of the medical profession is beginning to look upon syphilis and gonorrhea as public health problems which demand effective educational, legal, and medical measures for their solution. Ignorance of the mating process, embarrassment in discussion of sex problems and of diseases of the reproductive organs, the association of syphilis and gonorrhea with prostitution, the insidious attack of syphilis and the chronicity of gonorrhea, high costs of medical care, lack of hospital accommodations, difficulty of enforcing quarantine, the long period of treatment required, and the exploitation of the gullible by quacks and charlatans all contribute to the difficulties of dealing successfully with these two diseases.

Developments and Events, 1929. Through the Division of Medical Measures the American Social Hygiene Association and its affiliated state and local agencies cooperated actively during the year with the United States Public Health Service and with state, county and city health departments in their campaign against syphilis and gonorrhea. The program included the preparation and distribution to doctors and public health workers of various technical pamphlets on the prevention, diagnosis, and treatment of venereal diseases; lectures to nurses; prevalence surveys; studies of methods for the prevention and treatment of congenital syphilis; a study of seamen under treatment in the port of New York; many important conferences, including one with seamen's organizations, the American Merchant Marine and other shipping and health authorities on the protection of seamen; the investigation and reporting to legal authorities of advertising "quacks"; and participation in scientific meetings through addresses and exhibits. Motion picture films were used extensively during the year, one on the tragedy of congenital syphilis, prepared by the British Social Hygiene Council, having been sent to this country for use through the American Association. Early in the year Colonel L. W. Harrison, of the British Ministry of Health, toured the United States, lecturing on the prevention and treatment of syphilis and gonorrhea under the auspices of medical societies and the American Association. Progress was made in the studies of the Committee on Research in Syphilis of the League of Nations' Commission of Experts on Syphilis, and of the Julius Rosenwald Foundation in relation to syphilis among Negroes. An important social hygiene survey of Philadelphia was made by the American Social Hygiene Association, as part of the general hospital and health survey of that city.

Legislation, 1929. Connecticut (Ch. 126) amended its law requiring physicians to report venereal diseases to their local health officers so as to require reporting by name when the patient is a food handler or fails to return for treatment while in a communicable state of disease.

CONSULT: Bolduan, Charles: *All-America Conference on Venereal Diseases*, 1921; Churchman, John W.: *The Prevention of Venereal Diseases*, 1927; Galloway, Thomas W.: *Sex and Social Health* (American Social Hygiene Association), 1924; *Philadelphia Hospital and Health Survey*, 1929, Chapter IV—*Social Hygiene* (Philadelphia Hospital and Health Survey Committee), 1930; Snow, William F.: *Venereal Diseases—Their Medical, Nursing, and Community Aspects*, 1924; Stokes, John H.: *Today's World Problem in Disease Prevention* (United States Public Health Service), 1919; and United States Surgeon General of the Public Health Service: *Annual Report, Division of Venereal Diseases*, pp. 267 to 291, 1929.

WALTER CLARKE

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

VETERANS. Since soldiers and sailors protect nations in wartime, risking life and health by so doing, public sentiment has always demanded that nations shall in re-

turn assume certain responsibilities for the well-being of ex-service men and their families, including usually the widows and orphans of men killed in action or dying without having made adequate provision for those dependent upon them. A large special group in the population has thus received public aid over a long period of years. Although such assistance is related much more closely to compensation for industrial accidents than to relief through local public agencies, it frequently presents problems common to all social case work with families, and in addition a series of special case work problems of its own. It is these problems, very little realized by administrators until the World War, that give the organized activities for veterans a place in this volume.

History and Present Status. The first federal pension act was passed in 1776. Beneficiaries were those with disabilities due to service in the Revolutionary War. Similar laws were passed during each succeeding war. The first pensions for disabilities not caused by service were granted in 1818 to Revolutionary War veterans. Similar enactments followed all wars except the World War. Pension laws were too inelastic for constructive benefit, and many veterans, moreover, and their descendants came to expect permanent preferment. Accordingly, by 1918 the conviction had become so strong that the pension system was at times positively anti-social in its effect that in providing for World War veterans Congress deliberately discarded the pension plan and provided, instead, for compensation based on disabilities connected with war service and scaled according to amount of disability and number of dependents. In addition a system of war risk insurance was established for those who might escape war disabilities but later might become disabled by age or otherwise. Such insurance was made purchasable at low rates since all costs were carried by the government. Nevertheless, most veterans discontinued it after the war was over.

Vocational rehabilitation of disabled veterans began with the World War and came to an end in 1926, so far as the federal government was directly concerned. By that time many states had established agencies for vocational rehabilitation under the provisions of the Smith-Fess Act. Under that law soldiers and sailors disabled in peace-time service who require vocational readjustments are cared for in the same way as other physically disabled persons and through the same channels, except that for veterans additional cooperating agencies, both public and private, are often available. *See* REHABILITATION.

The United States Veterans' Bureau, established in 1921, pays World War compensation, insurance, and bonus claims; maintains some 46 veterans' hospitals; provides hospital treatment and pays burial claims for the veterans of any war; and since 1927 has conducted the hospital social work in veterans' hospitals which was developed by the American Red Cross between 1918 and 1927. The United States Pension Bureau administers pensions for earlier wars and for peace-time service. State activities for the benefit of veterans include the following: Confederate pensions paid by 13 southern states; union or confederate soldiers' homes maintained in seven states; provisions for uniform guardianship or similar responsibility in 33 states; veterans' relief funds in 23 states; a state bonus, usually for World War veterans only, in 19 states; state service bureaus or commissions in 20 states; land settlement privileges or farm and home loans in 13 states; tax exemption in 21 states; civil service preference in 17 states; and burial funds in 30 states. Most laws on these matters were passed since 1917, but veterans of earlier wars are frequently included in the provisions.

A large number of nation-wide or non-localized private organizations are in existence for the purpose of relief and service to ex-service men. The writer has knowledge of at least 50, and there surely are others.

Many of them administer relief to individuals —ordinarily without case work service— through members of the organization, committees, or women's auxiliaries. In addition, several funds for the relief of soldiers are handled by case workers through public relief channels. The social work of two of these organizations, the American Legion and the Veterans of Foreign Wars, is referred to more fully in the article on FRATERNAL ORDERS. Over 2,800 Red Cross Chapters carry on family service activities for the benefit of ex-service men and their dependents, although all thus employed are not trained case workers. Social service is also rendered by the Red Cross in hospitals maintained by the Army, the Navy, and the Department of the Interior. In general, supplemental services of private organizations are required, because public procedure is not only slow moving, but is necessarily more inelastic and impersonal. Claimants need guidance in the procedures involved in filing and prosecuting claims, and they and their dependents often require care pending action by the government.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Case work training, either in a professional school or through apprenticeship, is required for their hospital social workers by the Veterans' Bureau and by the national soldiers' homes; by the American Red Cross for such workers, and also for Home Service workers in local chapters to the extent of their availability and the ability of the community to afford such service; and in a few instances for employment in the administration of soldiers' relief funds provided by states.

Developments and Events, 1929. Among the significant developments of the year are the following: A growing trend toward World War pensions, bills having been introduced in Congress during the year and reintroduced in 1930 session with eventual passage likely—an abandonment of the more advanced theory on which the compensation laws are based; a large increase in the appropriation for the Veterans' Bureau, and an additional appropriation of $15,950,000 for hospital construction; the appointment of a committee by the President to review all federal activities for veterans, looking toward possible consolidation. A bill providing for such consolidation (H.R. 6141) was under consideration during the year.

Studies in progress during the year include a compilation of all veterans' benefits, national, state, local, public and private, by the United States Veterans' Bureau, and a study of 50 mentally disabled veterans by Muriel A. Fay.

Legislation, 1929. Federal laws: Army aviation pensions, Title 38—Sec. 231; Pilgrimages of veterans' mothers and widows to European cemeteries (not coded); Adjusted Compensation Act amended in important particulars, Title 38—Sec. 642; and hospital construction for Veterans' Bureau (not coded). State laws: 25 states enacted the uniform guardianship law or laws of similar purpose providing for stricter and more uniform accountability by guardians of disabled veterans or other disabled or minor beneficiaries of the Veterans' Bureau, and for commitment of veterans to federal hospitals. Other laws, passed during the year, related to the following matters: Provisions for relief, loans, funeral expenses, welfare funds, or welfare bond issues for soldiers, veterans or their dependents—Connecticut (Ch. 182), California (Ch. 659), Illinois (page 81), Kansas (Ch. 249), Maine (Ch. 295), Maryland (Ch. 430), Massachusetts (Ch. 160), Minnesota (Chs. 79 and 327), New York (Ch. 565), North Carolina (Ch. 298), Oklahoma (Ch. 58), Oregon (Ch. 201), and Vermont (Secs. 4227–4228, Gen. Laws); commissions, departments or offices in relation to soldiers, disabled soldiers, their relief or their affairs generally—Arizona (Ch. 101), California (Ch. 660), Florida (Ch. 13,797), New Mexico (Ch. 146), Ohio (Secs. 2930-2934 of Gen. Code), and Oregon (Ch. 123); education or maintenance of orphans—Connecticut (Ch. 225), Delaware

(Ch. 226), and Oklahoma (Ch. 286): Veterans' or soldiers' homes, in Connecticut (Ch. 72), Illinois (page 74), Kansas (Chs. 255 and 269), Minnesota (Ch. 333), Oregon (Ch. 346), and South Dakota (Chs. 224 and 225); pension or compensation for national guardsmen—Connecticut (Ch. 282), and Maryland (Ch. 430); Hospital care—Wisconsin (Chs. 63 and 146); hospital-home care for Civil War veterans, wives or widows—Massachusetts (Ch. 340); hospital for insane veterans—Oklahoma (Ch. 64); rest camp—Minnesota (Ch. 312); employment—New Jersey (Ch. 349); and confederate pensions—Oklahoma (Ch. 48).

CONSULT: National Conference of Social Work: *Proceedings*, Part II, *Social Problems of the War*, 1917; Federal Board for Vocational Education: *Rehabilitation Monographs*, (Joint-Series Nos. 1–67) 1918–1919; Red Cross Institute for Crippled and Disabled: *Monographs*, 1917 to 1919; United States Veterans' Bureau: *Annual Reports*, 1921 to 1929, and *Medical Bulletins*, 1924 to 1929; American Legion: *Convention Reports and Legislative Bulletins*, 1920 to 1929; Spray, Edith: "Present Day Provisions for the Care of the Veteran and His Family," in *The Family*, April, 1930; American Red Cross: *Annual Reports*, 1917 to 1929; Crane, Major A. G.: *Physical Reconstruction and Vocational Education* (Vol. XIII, Medical Department, United States Army of World War), 1927; Bailey, Williams, and Komora: "Neuropsychiatry—In the United States," in the *American Expeditionary Forces*, by Salmon and Fenton, 1929 (Volume X of *The Medical Department of the United States Army in the World War*); Lewis, E. M.: "Nation's Treatment of our War Veterans," in *Current History*, January, 1929; Smith, Don C.: "The Obligations of Red Cross War Service Today," in *Red Cross Courier*, March 15, 1929; Hoover, Herbert: "Veterans," in his Message to Congress, *United States Daily*, December 4, 1929.

DON C. SMITH

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

VISITING HOUSEKEEPERS AND HOME ECONOMISTS. The term visiting housekeeper is most commonly used to designate workers who have had training in home economics and give demonstration instruction, chiefly in the home, in cooking and other household operations, and in budgeting and household management. The term has also been applied to workers without home economics training but with practical experience who visit homes in the rôle of assistants or teachers of the head of the household. The term "home economist," on the other hand, is applied only to the worker with home economics training. Her work is usually organized to obtain improvement in home making through consultation with case workers who have contact with the home. She often, however, deals directly with families in homes or among groups in relation to such problems as the management of income, choice and preparation of food and clothing, and so forth.

History and Present Status. The homemaking problems of the families whom they serve have received the attention of social case workers from the beginning of organized social work. In the attempt to meet this need the visiting housekeeper preceded the home economist. The first visiting housekeepers were for the most part women accustomed to living on a low income who were employed by family welfare societies to impart their own good standards of homemaking to poor housekeepers. Friendly visitors with practical housekeeping experience also filled this need in some cities. It was gradually learned that thorough training was necessary also in food values, food preparation, and household management. The first workers with home economics training were employed about 1905 and were known as dietitians or visiting housekeepers. Soon, however, the need for social case work experience in addition was recognized and workers trained in both fields were found valuable as consultants to case workers on the homemaking aspects of their problems.

About twenty family welfare societies

now employ workers with home economics training, called either home economists, visiting housekeepers, dietitians, or nutritionists. A few societies employ also visiting housekeepers without home economics training. Where both types of workers are employed by a society, the home economist usually acts as consultant to the staff, while the visiting housekeepers give instruction in the home or to mothers in groups.

In addition to this use of home economists in family welfare societies, a few public welfare or mothers' aid departments and a few agencies in the public health field employ such workers. There are also a few local organizations supported by private funds, such as the Visiting Housekeepers' Association of Detroit, whose sole function is to do visiting housekeeping work. The employment of home economists is being introduced in some new places. In a southern city such a worker is to be employed by the Family Welfare Society for the purpose of making a special study of pellagra. Apart from this, however, there has been no marked growth in the employment of home economists. In fact, the number of those employed in some large family welfare societies has been reduced. This change has not always been due to a lack of trained workers or to lack of money. In some cases it means merely that agencies of another type, such as those for infant welfare, have begun to offer such service.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Training in social case work for families is almost universally considered essential for home economists. Sometimes the training is offered by the case work organization employing the worker; or, conversely, experienced case workers take courses in home economics. Attempts are being made to recruit graduates of schools of home economics for schools of social work. For employment in public agencies civil service examinations are usually required, and training in social case work and a knowledge of home economics are specified. Departments of home economics in several colleges, in cooperation with social case workers, have worked out educational programs for mothers. Housekeeping centers, which include home work with families among their activities, are conducted by agencies of several types including settlements and associations of housekeeping centers. Nursing organizations, both public health and private, have home economics departments in many places. Nutrition work with children, including instruction to mothers, is given by societies for infant welfare and other health agencies in the children's field. *See* NUTRITION WORK FOR CHILDREN.

During 1929 a study of special diets was made by the Home Economics Committee of Cleveland, and one by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York City, of the food value and cost of dietaries in 100 families.

CONSULT: Lurie, Harry L.: "The Use of a Home Economics Department as a Part of a Family Agency," in *The Family*, October, 1928; School of Household Administration, University of Cincinnati: *Correlating Home Economics and Social Case Work*, 1929; Associated Charities, Cleveland: *Social Service a la Carte*, 1929; Bernstein, S. S. C.: "Mothers by Proxy," in the *Survey*, April 15, 1926. Low cost dietaries, with recipes, are obtainable from the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor and the Charity Organization Society, New York City, the Associated Charities, Cleveland, and others.

FLORENCE NESBITT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

VISITING NURSING. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING.

VISITING TEACHERS. The service performed by visiting teachers has as its primary purpose the study and adjustment of children who present problems of scholarship, personality or behavior, or whose home or other environmental conditions appear to be interfering with their progress and future

development. To deal wisely with such children it is important for the school to know their individual needs, and often to make adjustments requiring acquaintance and cooperation with the home and the special resources of the school and community. The visiting teacher is a member of the school staff who brings to this task the twofold equipment of social worker and teacher. She uses the social case work method, and through her knowledge of school conditions and procedure works out constructive plans with the school for its treatment of the individual child.

In Philadelphia and a few other places visiting teachers are known as school counselors, and the connotation of the term is kept distinct from that of vocational or educational counsellors. In the early days visiting teachers were called "home and school visitors," and while that term is still used in a few places, the title "visiting teacher" has generally replaced it and has gained professional significance as indicating the close connection of the work with the teaching program.

The visiting teacher works from individual cases and applies her experience with them to group problems. In studying the problems of individual children and in analyzing their needs in the school situation, the visiting teacher is often able to point out ways in which the school may develop facilities to meet these needs. Her aim is to discover children's problems before they have become too serious; her work is designed to be preventive and educative.

History and Present Status. Visiting teacher work was begun in New York, Boston, and Hartford in the school years, 1906–1907. In the first two cities, the original interest developed in settlements, though in New York the Public Education Association soon took up the demonstration and developed it until the Board of Education established it as a part of the school system. In Hartford it was the director of the Psychological Laboratory who, in his work with problem children, realized the need of a visiting teacher as coordinator between school and home. In 1913 Rochester and Mount Vernon started the work directly under the auspices of their school boards. Others followed rapidly until in 1921 there were visiting teachers in 28 cities in 15 states. The National Association of Visiting Teachers (recently renamed the American Association of Visiting Teachers) was organized in 1919 to unite the visiting teachers of the United States in matters of common interest. Its committee on standards makes recommendations concerning the training and qualifications of visiting teachers. Qualifications for membership in the Association are: the degree of bachelor of arts or a certificate from a standard teachers' college or its equivalent; a course of training which includes the theory and practice of case work in a recognized school of social work of not less than one academic year's duration, or two years of well-supervised training in a recognized social case work agency; at least one year of experience in teaching and at least one year of professional work either with a recognized social case work agency—family or psychiatric preferred—or one year as a visiting teacher.

Great impetus was given to the visiting teacher movement by the decision of the Commonwealth Fund in 1921 to include in its general program for the prevention of juvenile delinquency demonstrations of visiting teacher work in 30 centers in various parts of the country. To administer and supervise this program the National Committee on Visiting Teachers was organized in affiliation with the Public Education Association of New York. The committee was made up of leaders in education and in social work. The demonstrations were conducted, on a plan of joint support and supervision, in communities varying in size from a town of 7,000 population to a city of 1,000,000. Three rural counties were also included. The purpose was to demonstrate the efficacy of visiting teacher service under different conditions and circumstances,

with the hope that after three years of operation the school systems would themselves take over the entire support of the work. An advisory and consultant service was also developed in response to requests for aid and advice to those contemplating the introduction of visiting teacher work, to those organizing it in new centers, or on problems of services already established. The list of centers so aided numbered 132 in 1929. A gradually unfolding program of publications, educational work with teachers, and training for visiting teachers has grown out of the 30 demonstrations.

Eighty-seven centers in the United States are now carrying on visiting teacher work in connection with public school systems. The largest staff is in Rochester, with 23 members; New York City has 21; Cincinnati 11; Minneapolis 14; Chicago 11; Newark 11. The White-Williams Foundation in Philadelphia maintains a staff of 14. These centers represent 35 states and all types of centers ranging from rural districts in seven counties to the more crowded districts of New York City. Most are now supported entirely by local boards of education. A few are temporarily supplemented by contributions from such organizations as the Red Cross, Kiwanis clubs, or state child welfare associations, or state departments of education. Not more than five are supported by private funds. Approximately 250 visiting teachers are employed. The figure does not include workers doing a type of home visiting that does not measure up to the standards of the National Committee nor of the American Association of Visiting Teachers.

Most visiting teachers confine their efforts to elementary and junior high schools, although there are at least 10 who work in high schools exclusively and 20 more who do some work with high school children. Visiting teachers in Newark are an integral part of the school department of child guidance; in New York City four are assigned to the Psycho-educational Clinic, and in several of the newer centers they work in connection with a child-guidance clinic. Frequently the visiting teacher ranks with the supervisors in a school system. The National Committee advises that her salary be at least commensurate with that of high school teachers. She is usually included in the superintendent's council, and in one county center is an assistant superintendent of schools. Her status within the schools is usually that of other specialists, such as the psychologist or the vocational counsellor. Visiting teachers are affiliated with both educational and social work groups, and take part in the conferences and institutes of both.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. The requirements for training and experience for visiting teachers generally are those already mentioned for membership in the American Association of Visiting Teachers. Special courses preparing students for visiting teacher service are offered by the New York School of Social Work, Graduate School of Social Service Administration of the University of Chicago, Smith College School of Social Work; and a number of universities, including Tulane (New Orleans) and New York University (New York City) which are definitely planning to add similar courses to their regular programs. Ten fellowships of $1,200 each have been available since 1927 for teachers given leave of absence by their school boards in order to prepare themselves for visiting teacher service. Courses have also been given under the auspices of the National Committee and in part financed by it at the summer sessions of several teacher-training institutions.

Developments and Events, 1929. Twelve new centers initiated visiting teacher work during the year. There were 23 additional workers employed in 12 centers. A visiting teacher division of the Vocational Bureau, with a separate director and staff of 11, was organized in Cincinnati. An acting supervisor of visiting teachers was appointed in Chicago, together with three visiting teachers, one of whom was assigned to a high school in connection with a mental hygiene project,

and a second to a guidance center in a junior school.

In the summer of 1929, courses on visiting teacher work, in part financed by the National Committee on Visiting Teachers, were given in the summer schools of 13 well-known universities and colleges. Most of these institutions intend to continue the courses in the future without financial aid. Their aim is not to train teachers for visiting teacher work but to assist teachers in their own work with children. Two additional demonstrations were organized during the year in connection with courses given by the State Teachers' College, Oshkosh, Wis., and the Extension Department of the University of North Carolina.

CONSULT: Culbert, Jane F.: *The Visiting Teacher at Work*, 1929; Oppenheimer, J. J.: *The Visiting Teacher Movement*, 1924; Sayles, Mary B.: *The Problem Child in School*, 1925; Frazer, Elizabeth: "A New Job for the Public Schools," in *Good Housekeeping*, October, 1929; Pratt, Anna B.: "Friends in Need," in *The Child Welfare Magazine*, May, 1929; and Janvier, Carmelite: "Problem Children and Problem Parents," in the *Survey*, October 15, 1929.

JANE F. CULBERT

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 599.

VITAL AND HEALTH STATISTICS. In its broadest sense the term vital statistics includes all statistics relating to much of the life and social history of man, including births, marriages, deaths, sickness, physical defects, population growth, and so forth. In the more usual sense of the term, however, it refers to data on births, deaths and marriages alone, with only minor emphasis on statistics of marriage. The term "health statistics" has come to mean chiefly statistics of morbidity or illness rather than of mortality; and it also includes the statistics of such chronic non-disabling handicaps as are usually spoken of as "physical defects." Governmental agencies collect both vital and health statistics; and health statistics are collected by insurance companies, sick benefit associations, and school health departments which examine children and tabulate the physical defects found.

In nearly every state the registering of births and deaths is the function of some executive department, usually that of public health. The federal agency that tabulates and publishes birth and death statistics is the Mortality Division of the Bureau of the Census. To insure the reliability of the very detailed data which it publishes, birth statistics are tabulated only for states and cities that have been admitted to the birth registration area, and death statistics only for states and cities that have been admitted to the death registration area. To be admitted, the state must have certain laws and machinery which will make for complete registration. Also, as a preliminary, an actual check is conducted by the federal agency to determine whether the registration is at least 90 per cent complete.

In 1929 the death registration area included 95.8 per cent of the population of the United States. Forty-six states, the District of Columbia, and nine cities in the other two states—Texas and South Dakota—were within the area. The birth registration area was not organized until 1915. It has been extended rapidly and now consists of 46 states and the District of Columbia, and comprises 94.8 per cent of the population of the United States. The present difference in the two areas is that one city in South Dakota and eight cities in Texas which are in the death registration areas are not in the birth registration area.

In the field of morbidity statistics it is far more difficult to secure complete reporting. As a rule it is required by law that physicians report to the local health departments all cases of specified diseases, usually the communicable diseases of children such as measles, diphtheria, scarlet fever, and so forth; also the venereal diseases, and the very rare diseases such as plague, cholera, typhus, and the like. It is virtually impossi-

ble to get complete reports on the more common diseases because (a) many cases are never attended or seen by a physician, and (b) it is impossible to enforce reporting even if a constant effort were made to do so, because the necessity for a report depends upon the diagnosis. In the event of rare and dreaded diseases such as plague, cholera, and typhus every recognized case is undoubtedly reported. Smallpox is likewise rather completely reported. The United States Public Health Service is the federal agency that collects, tabulates, and publishes statistics of these notifiable diseases. Although it can be readily understood that the data are incomplete, such reports as are received indicate quite definitely any unusual outbreak of the reportable diseases.

Since 1920 the Public Health Service has been collecting data on the incidence of illness causing absence from work for eight days or more among a large group of sick benefit associations. The data cover diagnosis, date of onset, duration, and so forth. The Public Health Service and other agencies have also made special morbidity surveys of certain population groups. These surveys might be classified as (a) prevalence studies, which record the number of a given population who were sick on a specified date —a type of survey extensively carried on by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company; and (b) incidence studies, which record the number of cases of illness in a certain population over a given period of time. The United States Public Health Service has made a number of such incidence studies. One of the first was in a mill village of South Carolina during a part of 1918. In 1921 a 28-month study was begun in Hagerstown, Md., with bi-monthly visits to record all illnesses in a group of families over this period.

A few cities have collected rather extensive data on illness causing absence from school, one of the most complete records being that for Gary, Ind. The United States Public Health Service has published similar data for Hagerstown, Md., and for certain towns in Missouri, and has almost ready for publication a bulletin on the health of the school child, which includes sections on (a) illness causing absence from school, (b) physical defects as found on physical examination, and (c) death rates among children of school age. Less research has been done on the prevalence of physical defects among adults. Several years ago the Public Health Service issued a bulletin on physical defects and diseases among some 10,000 industrial workers.

The Weekly Health Index of the United States Bureau of the Census gives current weekly figures on mortality in about 75 cities which report by telegraph to that bureau. The bureau also publishes at intervals of four weeks a summary of automobile fatalities in a large group of cities. The United States Public Health Service publishes current provisional mortality rates for a number of states whose health departments supply monthly reports of deaths from certain causes.

At the time of writing death rates for 1929 are not available for the whole registration area, but partial figures show that the rates for both 1928 and 1929 were somewhat above that for 1927, due mainly to a moderately severe epidemic of respiratory disease that started toward the end of 1928, with the peak of the epidemic coming early in January of the next year. Preliminary reports indicate that the death rates from cancer and heart diseases continued their upward trend. Accidents, particularly automobile accidents, also tended to rise. Tuberculosis, as for many years, is steadily continuing its downward trend. As the communicable diseases of childhood occur in waves of from two to seven years, the comparison of rates for any given year with the year or two preceding is not valid any more than in tracing the trend of influenza mortality. Diphtheria and scarlet fever, however, are on the decline, the reduction in the death rate from diphtheria showing a sharp falling off since 1921. The death rate in 1928 from diphtheria was about the same as in 1927, but preliminary

indications show that the 1929 rate was lower than for 1928.

Developments and Events, 1929. The activities of private agencies in this field during the year were confined to supporting the work of the governmental agencies and agitating for legislative action, when necessary, to extend the areas or improve administration within them. A committee of the American Public Health Association actively cooperated with the Federal Bureau of the Census in order to bring all the states into both areas by 1930, before the taking of the federal census. Nevada and New Mexico were admitted in 1929. If this goal is reached, data for the registration area will be replaced, beginning with 1930, by data for continental United States. During the year, as previously, a committee of the American Bar Association cooperated with the Bureau of the Census in efforts to secure the enactment of adequate and uniform legislation for the registration of births and deaths in the various states. The United States Children's Bureau and many women's organizations, notably the General Federation of Women's Clubs, were also active in promoting better registration of births. During the year the United States Public Health Service sought to determine whether or not it would be feasible to establish a morbidity reporting area for a few of the better reported diseases. The purpose would be primarily to stimulate more complete and more prompt reporting to local health departments in order to prevent epidemics. During the year also the Milbank Memorial Fund published extensive data on physical defects found among 100,000 males examined by the Life Extension Institute.

In October, 1929, the fourth decennial Conference for the Revision of the International Classification of Causes of Death was held in Paris. Thirty-four countries including the United States were represented. The following subjects were given special consideration by the Conference: the classification of jointly reported causes of death (the United States delegates being requested to make a comparative study of existing codes for such classification as a basis for a uniform international code); the classification of deaths from cancer and diseases of the circulatory system, several changes in which were made; the classification of fatal accidents; and the classification of deaths in the puerperal state, which resulted in the separate classification of puerperal septicemia following abortion.

SELWYN D. COLLINS

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 20. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 600.

VOCATIONAL COUNSELLORS. *See* VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. It is a well-known fact that many young people leave school as soon as the law will permit, usually to become juvenile workers. A recent study in a New England state shows that these juvenile jobs are short-lived, a boy between the ages of 14 and 16 holding some six different jobs, and at the end of that period earning no more money than when he first went to work. There is a very general feeling that such a gap between the age of school release and entrance into a definite adult occupation means a very inadequate capitalization of this period of life for young people; and that it would be much better for them and for the state if the time were spent in securing a form of training for some type of gainful occupation promising permanence and advancement. The sociological value of aid given to employed adults is obvious, as affecting earning power and hence living conditions.

History and Present Status. Non-professional vocational education began in this country in 1862 when the passage of the Morrill Act by Congress established land-grant colleges. It is, however, only with vocational education of less than college

grade that this article deals. Public provision for such education began in Massachusetts in 1906, following the report of the Commission on Industrial and Technical Training, although in at least one state school boards had been given authority to establish trade schools or courses of instruction in trades some 20 years earlier. Almost simultaneously with the Massachusetts law legislation of a similar character was enacted by Wisconsin; and Indiana passed a vocational education act in 1913. The development, however, under a nation-wide, publicly controlled program of vocational education of less than college grade, dates practically from the passage of the national vocational education act—the Smith-Hughes Act—in the spring of 1917.

Attempts at vocational education became a part of the public school system comparatively late in the last century in the form of what is now known as manual training. This work was largely affected by Danish and Scandinavian ideas and procedures. It was generally believed that such training would directly contribute to the earning of a livelihood in the mechanical trades. It was, however, frequently forced upon school administrators against their wishes and under conditions which made it become little more than another type of formalized subject matter. The experience with commercial and agricultural education was much the same.

Since 1917 development has been in the direction of differentiating very clearly between manual training and training in the industrial arts on the one hand, and vocational education on the other. The former are now considered desirable activities having very high educational value for a large proportion of secondary school students, whereas vocational education has become recognized as having a distinct set of objectives dealing essentially with work-producing abilities. When the vocational education program was first initiated in this country in the field of trade and industrial education, attention was given almost exclusively to the so-called skilled trades. By contrast, a forthcoming report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education shows approximately 225 different trade and industrial subjects specifically dealt with, and a similar tendency in other fields.

At present the five following groups of agencies provide organized vocational education of less than college grade: Public high schools giving courses in commercial education; schools carrying on programs of vocational education under the provisions of the national act and state plans complementary thereto; privately endowed institutions, such as Pratt Institute, Wentworth Institute, Dunwoody Institute, and a variety of others of similar character, nearly all of which may be termed secondary technical schools; schools of private enterprise, some of them operated on a resident student basis; and correspondence schools.

According to the report of the Federal Board for Vocational Education for 1929, there were enrolled in schools and classes meeting the requirements of state plans something over 1,000,000 students, of whom probably considerably more than half were employed adults. The number of semi-public institutions of a secondary school type is relatively small, as shown by a recent study by the Committee for the Promoting of Engineering Education. There are no statistics available as to private schools. It has been estimated that there are over 1,000,000 students enrolled in correspondence courses.

Under the terms of the national vocational education act approximately $6,000,000 is distributed to the states for the promotion of vocational education of less than college grade in agriculture, trade and industry, and home economics, including part-time schools for juvenile workers. These allotments to each state must be matched by state or local funds or both. At present the average state and local contribution is about $3.00 for every dollar contributed by the federal government. The total expenditure, state, local and federal, under this program has been estimated at approximately $30,000,-

000, out of $2,275,000,000 expended for all forms of general education, including professional training. The so-called George-Reed Act, recently enacted, provides further sums for home economics and agricultural education.

Recently a National Advisory Committee on Education was appointed by the President. It is charged with the responsibility of making a general study of all educational activities with which the federal government is in any way connected.

Vocational education is provided in this country through various types of organizations, of which the following are characteristic: (a) Educational agencies in which the program is carried on in the institution itself, as in the case of a great number of trade schools and most engineering schools; (b) part-time schools, providing for alternate periods of employment and instruction; (c) extension courses—or "leisure-time courses," as they are sometimes called—intended specifically to extend the technical knowledge or skill of adults already employed. Such courses are usually carried on by local communities with state and federal aid.

The present situation has some characteristics which are encouraging and some which are not. Among the former are the growing recognition of the principles that efficient vocational education can only be secured where the instructor is a master of the subject he teaches, where the content covers the skill and technical knowledge actually used in the practice of an occupation, and where instruction is confined to those who are able to profit by it and who intend actually to utilize it afterward in the practice of a given gainful occupation. A second encouraging tendency has been a breaking away from the idea that vocational education is concerned only with the professions or skilled trades, and the increasing spread of vocational education programs in all fields.

The other side of the picture is the unwillingness of many communities to give adequate support to such a vocational education program; they still tend to concentrate efforts upon schools and courses whose primary purpose is to fit for college. Another somewhat discouraging feature is that after at least 10 years of experimentation there is still much confusion in the minds of administrators as to the purpose of vocational education and the conditions under which it can be efficiently carried on. Among the causes of inefficiency are the setting of a much greater value on an academic degree, in the selection of teachers, than upon occupational mastery, and the very general, though by no means universal, failure to recognize that vocational education, if it is to function directly in the interests of both employers and employes, demands a form of control in which both interests are represented.

CONSULT: Lee, Edwin A.: *Objectives and Problems of Vocational Education,* 1928; Macdonald, Austin Faulks: *Federal Aid; a Study of the American Subsidy System,* 1928; Prosser and Allen: *Vocational Education in a Democracy,* 1925; United States Commission on National Aid to Vocational Education: *Vocational Education,* 1914; Wright and Allen: *Efficiency in Vocational Education,* 1929; Fries, John Frank: *The Cosmopolitan Evening School, Organization and Administration,* 1929; Getman, Arthur Kendall: *Future Farmers in Action,* 1929; and Davis and Wright: *You and Your Job,* 1930.

CHARLES R. ALLEN

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 600.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE has been defined by the National Vocational Guidance Association as "the giving of information, advice and experience which will assist the individual in choosing an occupation, preparing for it, entering and progressing in it." Other names applied to the activity are: guidance, life-advisement, counselling, school counselling, and child accounting.

In the revised *Principles of Vocational Guidance* of the National Vocational Guidance Association the following significant statement shows the trend in the practice of

vocational guidance: "As preparation for an occupation involves decisions in the choice of studies, choice of curricula, and the choice of schools and colleges, it becomes evident that educational guidance must be considered equally with vocational guidance."

Today the functions of guidance, as carried on by public agencies, begin with the pupil in school instead of waiting until he has left school or is about to leave. The advisers help him in selecting proper schools and courses, and, in varying degrees, in making personal and social adjustments to all kinds of environmental conditions. As carried on by private agencies, guidance is still likely to be on the basis of a single specialized function. Thus it may be a by-product of scholarship work, of juvenile research, of the promotion of private academic or special training schools, of the salvaging and rehabilitation of handicapped workers, or of personnel work in industry. There is, of course, no reason why vocational guidance under private auspices should not be as well rounded as the ideal school guidance organization; the difficulty lies in the gathering and financing in one organization of a group of workers expert in school knowledge, in local employment conditions, in occupational research, in individual psychology, and in family case work.

History and Present Status. It is generally conceded that the beginning of the present vocational guidance movement lies in the work of Frank Parsons, in Boston, about 1900. He became interested in the problems presented by the hit-or-miss job-getting of boys who left the Boston schools, and in 1901 began to do individual counselling with individual boys who were about to leave school. This resulted in returning many boys to school for special courses. So valuable was this found that Dr. Parsons extended his work to meet the problems of immigrant young men and women. In 1908 the first vocation bureau was organized under private auspices, with Dr. Parsons at the head. This was later taken over by the Boston schools. A great many articles describing the work appeared in Boston and other papers, and in November, 1910, the first national conference was called to meet in Boston, under the auspices of the local organization. This was attended with enthusiasm, the delegates returning armed with concrete information and with the support of the newly organized National Vocational Guidance Association behind them. The movement has spread in every direction over the United States, sometimes starting in life-career or occupations class or club work in the schools and working out, sometimes, in the employment certificate office, the continuation schools, in chambers of commerce, or private investigation, and working into the schools. By 1916, 146 cities and towns, representing 29 states, reported that vocational guidance was being carried on in one or more of their high schools. It is safe to say that every state in the country has at present at least one vocational guidance program being carried on by public school agency; that most large cities and many small ones have well-organized vocational guidance departments; and that in many places where vocational guidance is not organized as a school function it is being carried forward through occupations classes, school club work, or project work in English or social studies.

In promoting and keeping pace with the extension of the vocational guidance idea, the National Vocational Guidance Association has grown steadily, both in its central organization and through its branches. In February, 1929, it was reported that the total membership had doubled since 1927, and there were 22 branches. In 1929 the J. C. Penney Foundation granted the Association a fund to employ a field secretary to assist in organizing a country-wide program of vocational guidance and to build up the branch associations. March, 1930, showed 29 branches. The organization derives renewed impetus through the annual conference, held just preceding the meeting of the Department of Superintendents of the National Education Association and at the

same place. The meeting in February, 1930, was on the subject of "Personnel, Guidance, and Placement," and was held jointly with the following groups: American Association of Collegiate Registrars, College Personnel Officers, Eastern Association of Deans and Advisors of Men, Institute of Women's Professional Relations, National Association of Deans of Women, National Association of Placement and Personnel Officers, National Committee of Bureaus of Occupations, Personnel Research Federation, and Committee on Personnel Methods of the American Council on Education.

Other organizations of national scope collaborate consistently with vocational guidance groups in both local and national programs. Among these are the American Vocational Association, the Kiwanis International and the Rotary Clubs, organizations promoting mental hygiene, associations of social workers, the Young Men's Christian Association and the Young Women's Christian Association, Boy Scout and Girl Reserve organizations, scholarship societies, and the National Education Association.

An important confirmation of the recognized value of vocational guidance to youth came in 1923 with the action of New York State in passing a law empowering cities and towns to employ "vocational teachers" and do vocational work. Pennsylvania and California carry on state-wide programs, the first through a State Committee of Guidance, organized in 1921 under the Department of Public Instruction; the second as a part of the California Plan of Vocational Education, inaugurated in 1927 under the State Department of Education.

Vocational guidance, at first most emphasized in public high schools, is now being definitely developed in elementary and junior high schools, part-time schools and colleges, and for special groups of mentally and physically handicapped children. Outside the public schools certain large parochial schools are employing counsellors, and many of the large young people's organizations—the Young Women's Christian Association, Young Men's Christian Association, Boy Scouts, Girl Reserves, and so forth—are adding vocational secretaries to their employment bureaus, attempting so to help solve another group of knotty problems for their members.

Vocational guidance as carried on today by public school authorities seems to have five characteristics of outstanding importance: study of the individual and his orientation, group counselling, placement of graduates and specially referred "drop-outs," and occupational and educational investigation. The first three of these characteristic functions are a part of the work of the counsellor assigned to a school; the last two are in some organizations carried on individually by these counsellors; in others, they are centralized so far as clearing and supervision are concerned; and in still others an entirely centralized group does placement and investigation in cooperation with the school counsellors.

Counsellors ascribe a great deal of importance to the individual interview, through which they get a clearly drawn picture of each member of a given group—his school attainments, his social and home background, his interests and activities, and his usually nebulous thoughts about the future. It discloses his physical, mental, and temperamental handicaps; it hints at his outstanding abilities. Consequently, like the general physical examination, it is the basis of diagnosis and treatment, and should occur as early as possible in the child's school life so that he may be wisely oriented from the beginning. Group counselling is a means of getting general information and instruction over to a large number of children and of awakening the interests of the school as a whole in guidance. It takes various forms—class projects, club work, visits to industrial and business plants, assemblies, vocational conferences, and talks on occupations or on school and college courses. Career books, school news publicity, and poster and essay contests contribute to the success of group work.

It is today generally conceded that placement of the school's product is a legitimate and very desirable function of the public school system. The paid employment agency for adults serves to connect experienced people with jobs. Equally important is it to start the beginner in work that he can handle, and check waste, reduce turnover, and increase the probabilities of steady employment. Placement, like guidance, has passed out of the stage of amateur handling by teachers for certain outstanding pupils in individual schools. Clearly, to serve all pupils, and to obviate repeated and bothersome solicitation of employers, some sort of centralized organization must be worked out—either by the schools or a state junior employment service closely connected with the schools.

In the last 10 years hundreds of occupational books and pamphlets have been published, and there is a constant demand for them in schools. The study that is based upon expert and impartial investigation, and written and illustrated to appeal to the child of school age, is a thing of the utmost value. Factual occupational information is the basis of vocational guidance, and provision for collecting such data is included in practically all well-organized vocational guidance schemes. A considerable number of such studies of occupations have been published by the Research Divisions of the Vocational Bureaus of Chicago, Cincinnati, Detroit, Los Angeles, Boston, Minneapolis, New York City, Toledo, Denver, New Orleans, Philadelphia, Rochester, St. Paul, and other cities and by a number of universities and foundations. A few of these organizations are producing studies of the problems of guidance itself, such as: *Some Problems in Junior Placement*, by Vocational Service for Juniors of New York City; and *A Comparative Study of Part and Full-time Students in the Public Schools of Toledo, Ohio.* In February, 1929, a Co-ordinating Committee was formed by some of the members of the Occupational Research Section of the National Vocational Guidance Association for the purpose of collaboration in improving and sustaining the quality of these studies. Among the studies not yet published and the research projects on foot, listed with this Co-ordinating Committee, are the following on vocational guidance topics:

Survey of Graduates of Two High Schools for Two Separate Years. Denver.

Continuity Study of Junior High Schools since 1928, with Special Attention to "Drop-outs." Denver.

Laws and Regulations Affecting the Education and Work of Minors. Chicago.

The Young Handicapped Worker—A Survey of Five Years. Chicago.

Survey of Employment and Vocational Guidance Bureaus. New York.

Occupations Entered by 18,151 Philadelphia Children 14 to 16 years of age. Philadelphia.

Study of Girls in "The Daily Class" of Continuation School. Philadelphia.

How Children Secure their Jobs. Philadelphia.

Vocational Guidance Activities Carried on in Philadelphia Schools. Philadelphia.

A Survey of Opportunities for Vocational Education in Pennsylvania. (Public Education and Child Labor Association of Philadelphia.)

A Curriculum for Guidance Classes and a Program of Guidance for the City Schools. Rochester, N. Y.

Study of the Graduates of One High School for the Last Ten Years. St. Paul.

Perhaps the most significant trend is found in the effort to "get together" and formulate policies and methods which may be reasonably standard for all communities. From many quarters come reports of plans to define and integrate the work of the school counsellor, in relation to that of the attendance officer, the dean, the visiting teacher, and the psychologist. The matter-of-course use of psychological methods and material; and the appearance of the guidance clinic, offering the combined services of counsellor, visiting teacher, psychologist, psychiatrist, and medical examiner, shows final general acceptance of certain slow changes in both policy and methods of guidance. Local surveys of existing guidance activities are being undertaken. There have been an increasing number of press and magazine articles, and within the last two years the radio has been utilized to broadcast the vo-

cational guidance idea to a tremendous audience. There is a constant stream of visitors going from city to city and from unit to unit comparing methods, duties, and record forms. A guidance consciousness has been created.

Scholarship work is a corollary of vocational guidance, and has been carried on—organized or unorganized—as long as guidance has. It consists of the granting of a periodic allowance to promising school children who, lacking it, would be compelled to leave school and go to work. The first scholarship committee was established in New York in 1908 as a part of the Henry Street Settlement, and this was followed by other associations, mostly private, in various parts of the country. In addition are the many funds collected in schools by parent-teacher associations, through alumni associations and by private donation, which are used informally and by individual schools for the laudable purpose of enabling needy children to take advantage of opportunities for public education. It is an interesting fact that while vocational guidance has developed its administration and technique far better under school organization than under private auspices, scholarship work has made equally good progress under private control. Efforts at present are being focused on the building up of proper methods of dispensing the funds that have been collected; this includes the making of careful investigations to determine the actual need, and the giving of tests to find out the degree and kind of education of which the applicant can make best use. A survey (*Scholarships for Children of Working Age*, by Esther Ladewick, University of Chicago, 1929) of scholarship work, made in 1929, showed nine cities with active organizations in close cooperation with the schools: New York, Chicago, Cincinnati, Philadelphia, Rochester, Providence, Minneapolis, San Francisco, and New Orleans—the last established in 1922. The scholarships are given usually only to children of junior high or high school grade past the age of compulsory school attendance. Counsellors in schools cooperate extensively with scholarship organizations, frequently serve on them, and continually refer applicants to them.

Important and stimulating recognition of the value of vocational guidance to youth lies in the program of the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection called by President Hoover. One of the 17 committees appointed was to investigate the present status of vocational guidance and child labor. Anne Davis, Director of Vocational Guidance of the Chicago Public Schools, was appointed by President Hoover as chairman. The committee is to be ready in November, 1930, to report and make recommendations for extension and improvement of vocational guidance in the United States.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Employment of vocational counsellors by public schools is conditioned by the requirements of the local schedule upon which they are accepted. If their status is comparable to that of high school teachers, they must meet the general training level of that group, with special qualifications in guidance subjects; they enter by examination just as teachers do. For private agencies no information can be given, except that the highly reputable work of certain foundations in guidance and research requires education and training qualifications of the first order. The Harvard University Summer School of 1910 was the pioneer in offering a lecture course in vocational guidance, the first actual teaching of content and methods. At present Teachers College of Columbia University gives a doctor's degree in vocational guidance, and courses in these subjects may be found in the curricula of many of the large universities, including Minnesota, California, Harvard, Chicago, Michigan, and Pennsylvania; and of many normal schools. They are usually open primarily to graduate students, and include work in occupational information, counselling, placement, psychological testing, case study methods, and field work.

There are no special schools for vocational guidance training.

CONSULT: Allen, Frederick J.: *A Guide to the Study of Occupations*, 1924, *Practice in Vocational Guidance*, 1927, and *Principles and Problems in Vocational Guidance*, 1927; Brewer, John M.: *The Vocational Guidance Movement*, 1918, and *Cases in the Administration of Guidance*, 1929; Davis and Davis: *Guidance for Youth*, 1928; Edgerton, A. H.: *Vocational Guidance and Counselling*, 1926; Kitson, Harry D.: *The Psychology of Vocational Adjustment*, 1925, and *Vocational Guidance—A Remedy for Many Social Ills*, 1930; Link, H. C.: *Education and Industry*, 1923; McCracken and Lamb: *Occupational Information in the Elementary Schools*, 1923; Proctor, W. M.: *Educational and Vocational Guidance*, 1925, and *Vocations*, 1929; Teter, Verle H.: *A Syllabus on Vocational Guidance*, 1929; University of Michigan: *Vocational Information: A Bibliography for College and High School Students*, 1928; Cohen, David I.: *Principles and Practices of Vocational Guidance*, 1929; Lane, May Rogers: *Manual to Accompany Vocations in Industry* (International Text Book Co., Scranton), 1930; and Trumbull, Frederick: *Guidance and Education of Prospective Junior Wage Earners*, 1929; also issues of the *Vocational Guidance Magazine* (Bureau of Vocational Guidance of Harvard University).

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For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 19. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 600.

VOCATIONAL REHABILITATION. *See* REHABILITATION.

VOLUNTARY DEFENDERS. *See* LEGAL AID.

VOLUNTARY PARENTHOOD. *See* BIRTH CONTROL.

WELFARE BUREAUS, SOCIETIES, or ASSOCIATIONS. *See* FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES.

WELFARE FEDERATIONS. *See* COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

WELFARE, STATE DEPARTMENTS OF. *See* PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES.

WIDOWS' PENSIONS OR ALLOWANCES. *See* MOTHERS' AID.

WIFE DESERTION. *See* DESERTION AND NON-SUPPORT.

WOMEN IN INDUSTRY. *See* ORGANIZED LABOR, WOMEN, and LABOR LEGISLATION FOR WOMEN.

WOMEN'S ORGANIZATIONS AND SOCIAL WORK. A number of nation-wide membership organizations, composed exclusively of women, exercise a wide influence upon social work and related fields through their contributions to public opinion on questions of social significance, by supporting legislative reforms, and by supplying volunteer service and financial support to agencies in the fields covered by this volume. See the agencies grouped under this heading in NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 600.

WOODCRAFT LEAGUE OF AMERICA. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS.

WORKERS' EDUCATION is part of the inclusive field of adult education but has developed around the desires and needs of a particular group—the industrial workers. Workers' education may be distinguished from adult education in general in the cultural validity which it places on the worker's experience and its relation to the interest and problems of workers in modern industrial society. Indeed the adult education movement in most countries arose out of the primary concern of the workers for wider educational opportunities, and in many countries today its most vital form is that carried on by and for the wage-earners. *See* ADULT EDUCATION.

Workers' Education has certain definite

characteristics. It is democratic and voluntary in that the group of workers determines what it shall study, when it shall study, and under what conditions study shall be pursued. It is non-academic and non-institutional in that there are no examinations, no courses for credits, and no degrees. It is cultural and non-vocational in that it is primarily concerned not with the means of livelihood, but with the meaning of life. Workers' education is non-sectarian and non-political, as it seeks a level of thought above the domain of prejudice. It is social in that it is concerned with the regeneration of the mental habits of working men and women. In a word, workers' education is the re-education of the worker in the light of the machine age.

History and Present Status. The Mechanics' Institutes which were established early in the last century to improve the intellectual conditions of industrial workers mark the first beginnings of adult education for workers in this country. Shortly after the first federated movement of wage-earners was launched in 1828, and as an outgrowth of these Mechanics' Institutes, there was demand in a labor convention held in Philadelphia for free libraries for the "use and benefit of mechanics and workingmen." Following these developments came the even more widespread lyceum movement, which sought in large part to provide for the educational needs of the workers and merited the approval and support of labor.

During the nineteenth century the needs of industrial workers occupied a part of each new adult educational program as it was developed. By the close of the century, however, a new turn was given to the movement with the establishment in New York City of such institutions as the Peoples' Institute, which sought to bring "the world of culture and the world of labor together," and the Breadwinners' College, which recognized the special problems and needs of the industrial worker. In 1900 the first resident labor college was established in this country, with the founding of Ruskin College at Trenton, Mo., under the leadership of Walter Vrooman. Six years later the Rand School of Social Science was organized in New York City, and in 1913 provision was first made by the National Women's Trade Union League at Chicago for the training of women organizers. In 1916 the International Ladies' Garment Workers Union, at its Philadelphia Convention, set up a permanent Educational Committee and made its initial appropriation for the education of its members. Two years later the American Federation of Labor appointed a special committee which made a study of workers' education as it had developed in the United States, and made a report to the convention of the Federation in 1919.

In recognition of the growing need for some clearing-house of information, a group of teachers and trade unionists met in the spring of 1921 and established the Workers Education Bureau of America. That step marks the beginning of the modern workers' education movement in the United States as a cooperative and democratic educational adventure of industrial workers and scholars. In June of the same year the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry held its first session upon the campus of Bryn Mawr College; in August the Opportunity School for Underprivileged Mill Workers was started at Tamassee, S. C., in the foothills of the Blue Ridge Mountains; and in October the Brookwood Labor College, a residential school for workingmen and women, opened its doors.

Since 1921 the workers' education movement in the United States has extended the range and variety of its activities. Its aim has become more clearly defined, new projects have been developed, new methods of instruction have been evolved, and new materials have been prepared to serve the growing needs of the movement. The net result of these years of experimentation and growth has been that workers' education has now come to occupy a permanent place in the country's educational program. It has brought added recognition from educa-

tors and from leaders of thought and opinion. In addition the endorsement and financial support of labor has been secured.

Workers' education projects as they have developed in the United States may be classified in several general categories. First of all is the Study Class—composed of workers of a single union or several unions—which meets regularly each week, usually in the evening, in a union hall, a public library, or public school building under the leadership of some instructor. This is the unit of workers' education effort. A trade union college is but a collection of such study classes under the direction of a Board of Control appointed or elected by a Central Labor Union. The Summer School represents a more ambitious effort, involving resident instruction for workers for a period which may range from two to eight weeks. The outstanding example is the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women Workers in Industry. In some cases, as at Barnard College, a non-resident Summer School for Women Workers has been organized. Finally, there is the resident Labor College, which provides for a diversified two-year course of training for advanced students. In addition are Week-End Conferences for the consideration of special subjects of interest to workers; Labor Institutes for the more extended consideration of special industrial or economic problems; the Labor Chautauqua—a device for combining education and entertainment; the more familiar devices of Open Forums, educational hours in the local unions, and correspondence instruction on a group basis; and a special library for workers established by the Workers Education Bureau and known as the Workers' Bookshelf.

The content of the courses of study in workers' education classes during the past few years has reflected the increasing emphasis on the social sciences. An analysis of 1,277 courses, covering a period from 1922-1928, which was prepared by the Research Department of the Workers Education Bureau and published by the Bureau in 1929, is in part as follows:

Courses	*Number*
Language and expression	383
Economics	215
Sociology	141
Labor and trade unionism	136
Psychology	85
Politics, government law	60
History (other than labor and economics)	54
The arts	40
Science and mathematics	37
Health, etc.	20
Women's interests	19
Geography	11
Philosophy	6
Miscellaneous	70
Total	1,277

The Workers Education Bureau is a co-operative undertaking that brings together for purposes of education trade unions and workers' educational enterprises. There were in active affiliation with the Bureau in 1929 more than 800 national and international unions, state federations, local bodies, and workers' educational enterprises. The unions thus cooperating represent nearly 1,500,000 members and constitute one of the largest adult educational movements in the country.

Although courses of instruction and lectures at summer schools have been given in several institutions on teaching methods, and special conferences have been arranged for the training of teachers of workers' education, such training as a systematic effort has yet to be developed in the United States.

Developments and Events, 1929. Six events of the year were of particular significance: (1) At the biennial convention of the Workers Education Bureau of America, held in April, two decisions of major importance were reached. The constitution of the Bureau was changed to bring the supporting national and international unions into more responsible relationship with the Bureau. This change was adopted by an overwhelming majority, but not without a debate and the submission of a minority report. The Brookwood Labor College case was also completely reviewed by representatives of Brookwood and of the American Federation of Labor, and the convention voted overwhelmingly

to sustain the disaffiliation of Brookwood from membership in the Bureau, pending an adjustment of its difficulties with the Federation of Labor. The good offices of the executives of the Bureau were tendered in the adjustment. (2) A representative of the Bureau at Elizabethton, Tenn., was designated to initiate a program of workers' education among that region's mill operatives. Many of these workers are mountaineers without previous industrial experience, and it was realized that their education was indispensable in building a responsible organization. The unique program of workers' education which was begun had some notable results. Chief among them was the decision of the American Federation of Labor in October to initiate early in 1930 a campaign of organization of the Southern workers generally, and to utilize in effect the methods of education that had been developed at Elizabethton. (3) At Worcester, Mass., in October, an industrial conference was called jointly by the Central Labor Union of that city, the six New England State Federations of Labor, and the Workers Education Bureau to consider the industrial future of New England in the light of the many far-reaching economic changes in that section. Representatives of business, government, and the universities met with representatives of labor. No such conference had been held before; its broad program of action adopted for the future was in keeping with the importance of the problem. (4) In the fall of the year an Art Workshop for Industrial and College Women was opened in New York City as a school for leisure-time education. This project, which grew out of the reorganization of the College Settlement, represents one of the first attempts in this country to make it possible for workers who are employed at monotonous jobs to discover opportunities for creative expression in their hours of leisure. Here workers as well as college alumnae may explore the possibilities of music, art, the drama, and literature. More than 800 applications were received for the first year, but only 60 were accepted. While the development of new skills during leisure time represents a departure from the tradition of a workers' education movement focused upon the social sciences, it nevertheless represents an important trend which derives its impetus from the desires of industrial workers. A second such center is to open in Chicago in 1930. (5) The Vineyard Shore School for Women Workers in Industry was established during the year at West Park, N. Y. It was an outgrowth of the work for women workers at the Barnard and Bryn Mawr Summer Schools and provided for more advanced study in residence by students who had completed the courses offered at these two Summer Schools for Women Workers. (6) The National University Extension Congress at its annual meeting at Austin, Tex., went on record in favor of the cooperation of state universities and state federations of labor in the furtherance of workers' education, following the cooperative plan established in California in 1924. This proposed use of public funds for workers' education should have a far-reaching effect in stabilizing many of the projects in the various states and in maintaining sound educational standards.

During the year also two notable volumes appeared which contain the first records of former students of the Bryn Mawr Summer School. The first of these is descriptive in character and contains the story of the growth and development of the school by its director, Hilda W. Smith. The second volume, which is a supplement to the descriptive volume, contains the results of a study of the effect of the Summer School as measured in the activities of the students at Bryn Mawr. The material was collected by Helen D. Hill and published with the cooperation of the American Association for Adult Education.

CONSULT: Workers Education Bureau of America; *Workers' Education in the United States*, 1929, and issues of *Workers' Education;* Gleason and Miller: *Workers' Education*, 1924; Smith, Hilda W.: *Women Workers at the Bryn Mawr Summer School*, 1929; Hodgen, T. Mary: *Workers' Education in England and the United States*, 1925;

Lindeman and Hader: *What Do Workers Study?* 1928; Peffer, Nathaniel: *New Schools for Older Students*, 1926; Mansbridge, Albert: *Adventure in Working Class Education*, 1920; Washington (D. C.) Public Library: *Workers' Education* (a selected bibliography), 1929; and Boston Public Library: *Workers' Education* (a selected bibliography), 1927.

SPENCER MILLER, JR.

For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21. For national agencies in this field *see* NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, on page 600.

WORKHOUSES. *See* PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS FOR ADULTS.

WORKMAN'S COMPENSATION. *See* INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

YOUNG MEN'S HEBREW ASSOCIATIONS. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

YOUNG WOMEN'S HEBREW ASSOCIATIONS. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS.

YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS. Included under this title, in alphabetical order, are the local activities of the Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America, the Jewish Welfare Board (including Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Young Women's Hebrew Associations and Jewish Centers), Knights of Columbus, Young Men's Christian Associations, and Young Women's Christian Associations. For related articles *see* TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED, on page 21.

GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

The Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America is an outgrowth of a similar activity in England. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.) Prior to 1875 "friendly guilds" for men flourished in that country, but there was no organized work for girls and women. To reach groups of young women who were then beginning to leave their homes for places in the new industrial life of the country the Girls' Friendly Society was organized in 1875 under the Anglican Church. Two years later Mrs. Elizabeth Mason Edson brought together in Lowell, Mass., the group that was to become the nucleus of the Girls' Friendly Society in this country. In both England and America the purpose was to organize a society which should uphold the highest standards of Christian character, and in which every member should find friendly companionship, a strong religious influence, and adult leadership. In both countries, also, the membership was at that time composed chiefly of girls in industry and domestic service. Volunteer leaders were readily obtained and in many instances their attitude was that of Lady Bountiful—giving help to the underprivileged. As the result of changed educational philosophy, the place of the adult has at present become that of adviser and counsellor who encourages girl initiative.

The membership of the society is now entirely nonsectarian and has changed to include girls of every race, interest, and occupation. There are today 46,000 members in the United States. Candidates for membership are girls between six and twelve years of age, and members are from twelve years old upward. Local units, varying in size and interest, are organized in connection with Episcopal churches. In order to maintain personal contact with small groups, each unit has a volunteer leader who must be a communicant of the Episcopal Church. Local branches do not own clubrooms, but usually meet in the parish houses of the churches with which they are connected.

Figures for 1927, although incomplete, show that 50 per cent of the members are in school or college, 20 per cent in offices, 16 per cent at home and not gainfully employed, 8 per cent in business or in the professions, and 6 per cent in industry.

Developments and Events, 1929. Coincident with the fiftieth anniversary of the society, which occurred during the year 1927, came a revision of many policies. An educational campaign for increasing the initiative and responsibilities of members in branch programs was given special emphasis. The program, for example, of the national conference held during the year for girls of high school age was planned in advance by a group of them, and committees of girls carried out its details. The year was also marked by increased cooperation with other church and community groups, by a study of living and working conditions of girls in six countries, including the United States, by a movement for a larger measure of self-support of the work by its membership, and by experimental work carried on in 11 branches on "successful home life." The experimental programs developed plays, worship services, parties, and discussions through which the girls may share the problems they face in adjusting themselves to family conditions and responsibilities and may seek solutions for these problems. Folk-ways in homes around the world were also studied, as well as games which members of families can play together.

CONSULT: Periodicals and other publications of the Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America.

FLORENCE L. NEWBOLD

JEWISH COMMUNITY CENTERS

The group of local agencies to which the term Jewish Community Centers is applied includes organizations which bear that name, together with others known by earlier names, such as Young Men's Hebrew Associations, or Young Women's Hebrew Associations, and some which use still other titles. With very few exceptions these organizations all function as general community centers, providing leisure-time activities equally for Jewish men and women, boys and girls. They serve as a common meeting place for members of all groups in the Jewish community, and as centers for the promotion of the highest ideals of American citizenship. Where the earlier names have been retained by these organizations it is largely because of provisions in their corporate charters.

History and Present Status. Jewish Community Centers date back to 1874, when the Young Men's Hebrew Association of New York City was organized. The first association for girls and women, the Young Women's Hebrew Association of New York City, was established in 1902. In 1917 the Jewish Welfare Board was organized to represent the Jewish community in the United States for the purpose of cooperating in the program of welfare work for American soldiers, sailors, and marines during the World War. Four years later the National Council of Young Men's Hebrew and Kindred Associations, representing the organizations here considered, was merged with the Jewish Welfare Board in order to stimulate their growth and to strengthen their influence in the upbuilding of Jewish life. Under the terms of this merger, the local affiliated organizations became constituent societies of the national body—the Jewish Welfare Board. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.) Member societies are organized into state and regional federations in New York State, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Middle Atlantic States (comprising Maryland, District of Columbia, and Virginia), New England, and the Metropolitan District of New York. These federations are directly representative of the local societies. They serve in an advisory capacity and promote inter-organization relationships.

The societies here considered are 261 in number—61 Young Men's Hebrew Associations, 44 Young Women's Hebrew Associations, 54 combined Young Men's and Young

Women's Hebrew Associations, and 102 Jewish Community Centers. They have altogether approximately 280,000 members, of whom about 80,000 are boys and girls under 16 years of age, 160,000 are young men and young women 16 to 25 years of age, and 40,000 are adults over 25 years of age. The proportion of male to female members varies, depending upon local conditions. The available data indicates that 65 per cent of the total number consist of men and boys, and 35 per cent of girls and young women.

In 1922, 75 of the local societies owned the buildings they occupied, but of this number few were especially constructed for the purposes of Jewish center work. At present, by contrast, 149 centers are provided with buildings, of which 92 were specially constructed to meet the requirements of a well-rounded program for members of both sexes and of all age groups. These structures are valued at $25,000,000. The number of employed executive heads has increased from 47 in 1921 to 103 at the present time. There are also many staff members occupying subexecutive positions.

A fully equipped Jewish Community Center provides social rooms, game rooms, class and club rooms, gymnasium, swimming pool, auditorium, stage arranged for dramatic productions, and other facilities such as kitchen, lodge rooms, and other meeting rooms. A few buildings have dormitory facilities, but such provision is made only where there is a special need. The Center provides for its membership a well-rounded program of health activities, including gymnasium and swimming classes; socials, games, dances, and entertainments; also a variety of cultural and educational activities, including dramatics, music, art, discussion groups, unit courses, lectures, concerts, forums, and lyceums. Jewish interests are specifically encouraged, and wherever feasible Jewish elements are introduced into the general program, particularly in the cultural, educational, and social activities.

All Centers provide for the special interests of boys and girls of school and high school age. They partake freely of the recreational facilities, and are also organized into clubs devoted to various purposes—literary work, scouting, Jewish activities, and informal vocational pursuits. Trained leaders, paid and volunteer, are usually provided for these groups. The clubs are organized into Councils and other self-governing bodies for the purpose of conducting interclub activities of a competitive and cooperative character. A suitable summer program is customarily conducted. Play schools and "indoor camps" have been established in some Centers, and others conduct outdoor summer camps under their own auspices or in association with neighboring organizations. During the summer of 1930 over 15,000 boys and girls and young people were accommodated at camps.

The Center participates in civic movements, stimulates discussion of public questions, and observes civic holidays by appropriate exercises at club and mass gatherings. In more recent years the local program has emphasized adult education through formal class instruction in the humanities, vocational, and other subjects, and through lecture courses and creative discussion groups in a wide variety of cultural and Jewish themes and everyday problems. Specialized courses are offered to women and girls in the subjects of particular significance to them.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. In order to meet an immediate need for qualified workers the Jewish Welfare Board, as early as 1921, began recruiting men who had the requisite background and related experience, and provided for their training in a specially arranged brief course. In 1925, when the Training School for Jewish Social Work was organized, cooperative arrangements were made with that organization for the preparation of men and women for this particular field of work.

Developments and Events, 1929. The program of the Center, while adhering to the fundamental principles of the movement, necessarily varies in a certain measure in response

to changing and growing demands of the membership. The outstanding development of the year was the expansion of adult educational and cultural activities. More constructive methods were also adopted in order to deal with members as individuals and to ascertain their special interests. Personal interviews with members by the staff, and wherever possible the centralization of responsibility for primary individual contacts in a membership secretary were policies more widely used during the year.

CONSULT: Issues of *The Jewish Center; Publications of the Jewish Welfare Board*, 1929; *Selected Bibliography for Workers in Jewish Centers*, 1928; and Biennial Reports, 1919 to 1928. (All are publications of the Jewish Welfare Board.)

HARRY L. GLUCKSMAN

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS

The Knights of Columbus is the largest organization of Catholic men in America. Its activities, however, are not circumscribed within the strict limits of insurance benefits and social interests. Applicants for membership must be practical Catholic men of 18 years or older and must subscribe to being opposed to socialism as an economic system.

History and Present Status. The order was chartered in 1882. Its activities were greatly expanded during the World War, the order being the recognized agency for service to Catholic enlisted men. After the conclusion of the war the society entered actively into work for boys. In 1930 the order had enrolled 614,784 members, organized in 2,548 local councils in the United States, Canada, and other countries. There are two classes of members, insured and associate, much the larger number being in the associate class. Local councils render pecuniary aid to members and their dependents and assistance to sick and disabled members; promote social and intellectual intercourse among members; promote and conduct educational, charitable, religious, social welfare work, boys clubs, Boy Scout troops, playgrounds, and summer camps.

A division of the movement is the society for older boys known as Columbian Squires. This is a junior order for boys 14 to 18 years of age. It has a five-fold program of activities with extensive religious, cultural, educational, and social-civic features. Columbian Squire units have been organized in 25 states, with Knights of Columbus men as leaders. The local unit is called a circle and may have sectors which function as parish sub-units with a Knights of Columbus counsellor supervising activities. Local units have been supplemented by scout troops and other organizations, and in turn complement those programs.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. Local and state councils of the order are united in a Supreme Council. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.) Important among the services rendered by the Supreme Council is its work for the training of professional and volunteer service for boys. This work has been developed because of a conviction that without capable and trained leaders no buildings or programs can adequately or satisfactorily care for boys during their leisure time. Brother Barnabas, F.S.C., until his death in 1929 directed the activities of the Boy Life Bureau, organized as a part of the Supreme Council's program. A professional training course for boys' work was established in 1924 at the University of Notre Dame. The Knights of Columbus, besides endowing the Chair of Boy Guidance, provides a number of national and state scholarships to attract college graduates with the proper qualifications for making such work a life profession. To date 73 men have been trained in this course and are giving leadership either directly or in a supervisory capacity to over 162,000 boys.

For training volunteers ten-evening "boyology institutes" are conducted by the Boy Life Bureau under the auspices of local units of the Knights of Columbus; and ten-day summer schools of boy leadership. The primary purpose of the evening institutes is to give to business and professional men and

all fathers a fundamental knowledge of boys, their leisure-time needs, and the best ways to satisfactorily fill those needs. Sixty-six of these institutes have been held in this country and in Canada, enrolling over 19,000 men. The ten-day schools have been conducted every summer since 1924 at key-points throughout the country. In 1926 the Boy Life Bureau built and equipped a model camp school at Cliff Haven, N. Y., where intensive courses are offered each year for practical volunteer boys' workers. Over 1,900 men have been trained in these schools, the curricula of which include courses on the psychology of the boy, the philosophy of approved boy programs, recreational methods, parish recreation, and the technique of boy guidance.

CONSULT: Issues of *Columbia*, *Columbian Squires Herald*, and *Weekly News Sheet*, published by the order; also the *Official Catholic Year Book*, 1928, pp. 661–664.

JOHN J. CONTWAY

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS

The Young Men's Christian Association was founded in London in 1844 and was introduced in the United States (in Boston) in 1851. The original purpose—"to improve the spiritual conditions of young men in the drapery and other trades"—was gradually modified to include the improvement of the mental, social, and physical conditions of all young men of good moral character. The active membership is now restricted to members of evangelical churches, but other young men are admitted with all privileges except that of voting. The last 10 years have seen a steadily growing tendency to admit women and girls to building privileges, especially to the use of the swimming pool and gymnasium.

The first International Convention of Associations in the United States and Canada was held at Buffalo in 1854. Later, an International Committee was organized and state committees were formed to visit and supervise local Associations. In 1924 a separate National Council was created for the United States. (See its listing in Part II of this volume.) The National Council and the state committees have no authority over the local Associations. Their rôle is to cooperate with them and give advice and counsel based on expert knowledge of the whole field. The program of service to boys and men during the last decade has been characterized by an increasing emphasis upon individual and group initiative in program making, as against fixed programs laid down by local, state, and national bodies.

In 1929 the several types of Associations, and the numbers of those which are officially related to the National Council, included: City Associations (722), Railroad Associations (193), Colored Men's Associations (51), Associations for Indians (3), Army and Navy Associations (31), Associations in Colleges and Universities (264), and Town and Country Associations (106). These Associations reported a membership of 951,964, classified as follows: men, 25 years old and over, 457,503; men, 18 to 24, 236,589; and boys, 12 to 17, 257,872. There were 801 buildings; and the total net value of property and funds was $224,552,600. *See* NEGROES, INDIANS, SEAMEN, IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES, and RURAL SOCIAL WORK.

Special types of work carried on in some or all Associations are: educational work, including day and night classes in vocational and cultural subjects for boys and young men; the maintenance of reading rooms in nearly every Association, and libraries in a few; employment agencies and vocation service; socials, entertainments, and motion picture shows; physical work, including gymnasium classes and competitive sports; dormitories for young men; and restaurants and cafeterias. *See* ADULT EDUCATION, RECREATION, and RESIDENCES FOR BOYS AND MEN.

The activities of the National Council—aside from its advisory and other relationships with regional, state, local, and other associations, and its publication, research,

and similar work—include conferences of young men and boys, and administration of Army and Navy branches in the United States and abroad. Many state committees conduct work for high school boys in Hi-Y Clubs and camp activities for boys in smaller cities and towns without regularly organized Associations.

The work for boys during the last decade has steadily grown in relative importance, the proportion of boy membership in the city Associations being 45 per cent in 1929. The Associations are now reaching a larger number of boys below 12 years of age. Among the distinctive features of the work with boys are the summer camp, boys' conferences, the group plan of work, the emphasis on interests and hobbies of boys, the life problem group, the world-outlook program, father-and-son activities, the pentathlon and hexathlon system for all-round athletics, the Hi-Y groups, the Employed Boys' Brotherhood, and the point system of character development.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. The Young Men's Christian Association looks chiefly to its three colleges (at Springfield, Mass., Nashville, and Chicago) for professionally trained men. Other training agencies are local training centers and summer school organizations. Men entering the secretaryship must be at least 18 years of age and have at least the equivalent of high school training. Candidates for advanced status as certified secretaries must have a minimum of four years of college work.

Developments and Events, 1929. One of the most important single developments of the year was the action taken by the National Council in fixing the educational minima for new secretaries, and for advanced status as certified secretaries, at the points just mentioned. During the year about 200 research projects were in progress in the Associations, covering character measurement, survey procedure, work for boys and young men, physical work, educational work, personnel, and other subjects. A printed list of these projects may be obtained from the offices of the National Council. An activity of increasing importance during recent years which was significantly developed during 1929 relates to the contacts which the Associations are learning to make with the groups of boys which form naturally and informally in neighborhoods. The aim is to establish helpful connections between such groups and the Associations, and to shift the character of their programs to those more rewarding educationally from the point of view of both health and character. Based on its contacts with such groups—and with those established in grammar schools, high schools, churches, and some industries—the Associations are in the process of developing the range and content of its group programs.

CONSULT: Morse, Richard C.: *History of the North American Young Men's Christian Association*, 1922; Super, Paul: *What is the Y.M.C.A.?* 1922; Association Press: *Association Year Book*, 1929; Dimock and Hendry: *Camping and Character*, 1929; Israel, Henry: *The Y. M. C. A. in Town and Country*, 1929; McCaskill, J. C.: *The Theory and Practice of Group Work* (Association Press), 1930; and issues of *Association Men*, *Intercollegian*, *Journal of Physical Education*, and *The Educational Council Bulletin* (Association Press).

JAY A. URICE

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS

The present national movement of the Young Women's Christian Associations, organized in 1906, brought into a single union most of the separate Young Women's Christian Associations which had been growing up in the United States since 1866. See the listing of the YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS, NATIONAL BOARD, in Part II of this volume.

The object of this national movement is to aid in the advancement of all of the vital interests of girls and young women in terms of social, economic, intellectual, moral, and spiritual welfare; to maintain service for

individuals for special needs; to develop helpful group experiences of a kind to aid in the adjustment of the individual to her situations, responsibilities, and opportunities; to work for the enrichment of Christian experience; to develop those finer qualities in the relations of individual to individual, and individual to family and to community, which are commonly associated with a Christianized view of life; and finally so to educate its membership and constituency in general that the organization as a whole may constitute an effective agency for social progress in local communities, in national life, and also in international relations. It operates on the assumption that individuals of many different faiths can be associated together upon a common religious motive, and upon a desire to make more real the Christian ideal of life to young girls and women. Any woman 18 years of age and over is eligible to general membership, and where the new form of constitution, sanctioned by the Convention in 1926, has been adopted, is also eligible to vote and to be appointed or elected to office provided only she is in sympathy with the purposes of the organization.

One of the major characteristics of the movement of today is found in the wide latitude of practice in the meeting of special needs of different groups. This results in important subdivisions and differentiations of program. In this way educational program and organization and social work program and organization move forward simultaneously as parallel activities in the same local Association. In this way also the membership or fellowship of the movement draws into active participation and to "somewhat of an understanding of one another" women of widely differing social, religious, economic, and racial background. Inherent in the philosophy is a belief in the importance of "association" and a confidence that barriers are broken down by face to face contacts. The interests of different groups are developed separately so that the leadership in each group may emerge according to its own genius, and such leadership may be associated together in the broader activities of the Association and in community and national issues for the benefit of women and girls everywhere. An important feature in all types of Association work is the place accorded the volunteer who takes a large part in the forming of policies as well as in the activities of program.

Present Status. On December 31, 1929, there were 459 independent local Young Women's Christian Associations affiliated in the national organization, with 550 student Associations in addition. The former group included: Associations in cities of 25,000 population and over, numbering 263; Town Associations in communities of 10,000 population to 25,000, numbering 143; and Rural Communities Associations and District Associations in 1,300 small communities with the surrounding country, numbering 53, with nine new ones in process of organization,

Outstanding subdivisions in 1929 were: (1) Branches for work among colored people. These numbered 65 units, having their own committees of management and employing 150 colored secretaries. Three special conferences are held annually for colored leaders and they participate in many of the other Association conferences. There is also a policy-making body—the National Council on Colored Work. (2) International Institute branches for foreign communities. These embraced 33 different nationalities, having their own committees of management and also international advisory councils made up of representatives of the several nationality communities. There were 48 International Institute branches in large cities, and six Foreign Communities Departments in smaller ones, employing 161 nationality secretaries for community and group service and 139 other social workers in administrative, case work, and group activities positions. It is estimated that in 1929 these branches had direct service contacts with 80,106 foreign families. The International Institutes are federated together in the National

Conference of International Institutes, an autonomous organization with its own officers and treasury. (3) Associations among the American Indians, chiefly in government schools. These were 31 in number, and in addition there were extension clubs in Indian communities on the reservations and in several cities.

Cross-cutting these variants in community organizations there are carried forward extensive club and educational programs among certain age, occupation, and professional interest groups. The industrial program as conducted in 290 different community Associations and branches through the regular Industrial Clubs included 38,788 young industrial workers in 1929, and an additional constituency of 29,822 were reached through other activities. Annually there are five summer conferences for industrial members and leaders, and biennially there occurs the National Industrial Assembly in conjunction with the National Convention of the Association.

Group work for younger girls (ages 12 to 18) operates under the title of Girl Reserves and in 1929 enrolled 250,000 members in clubs of the Associations and in 400 other communities where there were no Associations yet organized. The Girl Reserves program is carried on in colored, Indian, and International Institute branches as well, with appropriate adaptations to the family attitudes and customs of each group. Annually 10 summer conferences and schools are held for the training of girls, girls' work secretaries, and club counsellors.

In the same way clubs of business and professional women are organized through all types of Associations according to the interest of young women in business and commercial pursuits, and also in the teaching and nursing professions. There were in 1929 approximately 65,000 individuals enrolled in the 1,000 clubs, with 25,000 more participating in other ways. The clubs operate under a self-determined program and head up in the National Assembly of Business and Professional Women, meeting biennially in connection with the National Convention of the Association. There are held annually two general conferences and five members' conferences.

Throughout these various forms of group activities run the educational programs and aims of the movement. The Education and Research Division of the National Board is committed to the modern principles of adult education, and through its leadership the local organizations and special group programs place educational emphasis on persons rather than, as formerly, upon subjects. Its aim is primarily to develop the individual and to prepare her for a more satisfying and effective life in society. While in 1929 approximately 83,689 persons were enrolled in classes, it is felt that the most dynamic educational work of the organization is being carried on through the informal channels of club and other group activities. Especial emphasis is laid on health education, there being 270 Associations with health education departments.

Parallel with the program of social group work there are maintained other social services rendered individual by individual. Outstanding among these is the Employment and Vocational Service. Placement service is furnished through organized bureaus in many Associations, and vocational service is given both in connection with placement and through group and educational work in practically all Associations. In 1929 placement and vocational aid was given to 161,174 individuals. Social case work supplements the group work with concern for the problems of individuals. Most large and many small Associations employ trained social case workers who act as a referring agency, undertaking close cooperation with local case working agencies and endeavoring themselves to care only for those problems for the handling of which there are no other specially equipped agencies.

The social case work of the International Institutes constitutes an important sector of their work. In 1929, 17,958 cases were carried involving technical questions under

immigration, deportation and naturalization laws, and requiring a knowledge of the culture and attitudes of the nationalities concerned. In this connection also the Department of Immigration and Foreign Communities of the National Board maintains immigration case workers at the United States Immigration Stations of Ellis Island and San Francisco, and also maintains a nation-wide system of follow-up for social care in the communities of destination in cases of newly arrived women and girls and their families.

In 1929 there were 357 residence buildings in operation; also well organized Rooms Registry Departments in all Associations of the large cities, with similar service on a more informal basis maintained in smaller places. Recreation camps and vacation houses available to girls and women of every kind numbered 325. The work in foreign countries in exchange of leadership, and in training of permanent native leaders, volunteer and employed, is another outstanding concern of local Associations, but cannot be reported here.

Training Requirements and Opportunities. In addition to college education, special training is advised for all administrative, employment, social case work, technical education, and social group work positions. Short-term courses are provided in addition by the National Board in different parts of the country.

Developments and Events, 1929. Among the events of the year which indicate the direction in which the Associations are moving were the organization of a new National Department for Professional Study, which will draw together the advisory service and special short-term summer schools for both volunteer and professional training; the establishment of the Mabel Cratty Endowment Fund for the Development of Christian Leadership; also the adoption by the National Board of the policy of bringing about a more active participation by Young Women's Christian Association workers in the National Conference of Social Work. To this end an Associate Group Conference of such workers was organized at the Boston Conference of the latter organization in June.

CONSULT: Burton, Margaret: *Mabel Cratty—Leader in the Art of Leadership*, 1929; Sims, Mary: *The Y.W.C.A. in Cities*, 1930; Bremer, Edith Terry: *The Field of the International Institute and Its Place in Social Work*, 1926; Carner, Lucy: *Industrial Work in the Y.W.C.A.'s*, 1929; *The Y.W.C.A. in Towns*, 1929; *The Y.W.C.A. in Rural Communities*, 1929; the *Membership Leaflets Series*, 1930; Wilson, Elizabeth: *Fifty Years of Association Work Among Young Women*, 1915; National Board, Young Women's Christian Associations: *Reports to the Tenth National Convention*, 1928, *Reports to the Eleventh National Convention*, 1930, and *Proceedings of National Conventions*, 1912–1930; and issues of *The Womans Press*. All are published by The Womans Press.

EDITH TERRY BREMER
ELIZABETH WILSON

ZONING. *See* CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING.

PART TWO

NATIONAL AGENCIES

INTRODUCTION TO PART II

Part II contains two lists of national agencies. In the first one the agencies are arranged alphabetically, with specified information concerning each of them; in the second list they are classified according to the nature of their work under topical headings corresponding to those used for articles in Part I.

I. NATIONAL AGENCIES

Since this is probably the most comprehensive list of its kind which has been published thus far, some explanation is necessary as to its scope. The list includes 455 national agencies in the field of social work or in closely related fields. Foundations are included if they are national in scope, or if the research carried on under their auspices is of national significance, even though it covers only local areas. On the latter ground a few community trust funds have been included. Certain foundations are not included because their purposes are not yet sufficiently defined to make it possible to determine the scope and nature of their activities. Federal bureaus are included in so far as their activities are actually or potentially related to social work. No organizations are listed, however, whose purpose is to promote peace, international goodwill, temperance, prohibition, or education other than special education for Negroes. Some quite informal national agencies are represented in the list because it is believed that a record of them will prove convenient for reference purposes. Thus the Milford Conference is included, and also several groups which meet once a year with the National Conference of Social Work, but which have no professional staff and in some cases no very definite membership.

The Year Book relates only to social work in the United States, and therefore no agencies are included whose purpose is the promotion of relief or welfare activities in foreign countries, even though their headquarters are in the United States. Many country-wide social agencies, however, include Canada in their field of operations, and often on that ground are named "American" or "International" associations. The inclusion of such agencies in the following list was obviously necessary, and it was therefore decided to include also all international social agencies with which organizations in the United States are actively affiliated.

It has not seemed appropriate to extend the scope of the present list to cover agencies financed by profit-making bodies, or established primarily to serve the interests of such bodies. It is recognized, however, that important contributions to social work have been made by some of these agencies, and reference to them is accordingly made by name in several of the articles in Part I.

Information concerning the listed agencies was obtained by correspondence. When no replies were received to several letters an agency was excluded if its active existence was in doubt; otherwise it was listed by name and address only. So far as obtainable or applicable there is shown for each agency its address, the date of its organization, its executive officer, the names of its departments in so far as they

have separate directors (with the names of such directors), its purpose or activities, its periodicals, and the month and place where its annual meeting was held in 1929, if that meeting was a program meeting open to the public.

Aside from the departmental directors on an agency's staff, the only officer named for each agency is the general executive to whom it is desired that correspondence be addressed. The outline sent to agencies did not call for the professional or other titles of officers, and such titles are included only when they were supplied by the agency.

The information given concerning the membership of organizations is only approximate. The collection of exact data would involve ascertaining the membership provisions of each agency's constitution or by-laws. Many national organizations regard all contributors as members, others limit membership to their self-perpetuating boards of directors. In the matter of constituent agencies, all degrees of affiliation exist—from true constituent agencies, with voting power in the annual meeting of the national organization, to affiliated agencies which merely enroll themselves as interested in a common cause and report to their rather informal national committees that they are willing to attend conferences when convenient, to answer questionnaires, and so forth.

During 1929 two temporary agencies of great importance were active—the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection, and the National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement. These agencies, particularly the former, have received exceptional treatment in the following pages. For the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection a listing is presented of the sections, committees, and subcommittees established when this volume went to press, with the names of their chairmen and research assistants; and in the classified list each subdivision is named under the topics to which it seems to be related.

II. NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED

The list bearing this title is in effect a topical index of national agencies which are included alphabetically in the list just described. With but few exceptions the topical divisions are those used for articles in Part I. The purpose of the classification is thus in part to guide the reader to the listing of an agency when the nature of the work is known but its exact name is not recalled. It is believed that such a guide will prove useful, since national organizations have names beginning variously—some with American, National, or International, and others—like the Child Welfare League of America—with words descriptive of their work.

The classified list has two other purposes. For the use of readers who wish to obtain further information on any topic it aims to indicate the agencies which may be communicated with; and for students of special subjects or others interested in promoting programs in specified fields it aims to show the national agencies known to be working in each field, either directly or through their local affiliated societies. These purposes are easily stated, but the classification of over 400 agencies under the subjects to which they are related involves many difficulties. Most specialized

agencies designated by means of asterisks in the printed list were readily assigned, and an attempt was made to assign the more general agencies to the topics suggested by their executives. This plan was abandoned on account of the too extensive listing which many agencies desired. The assignments finally made are a compromise. Readers may notice omissions which seem to them important or inclusions which seem unnecessary. The classification is frankly experimental, and comment concerning it is solicited.

NATIONAL AGENCIES

Note. If the reader desires to refer to the listing of an agency, and does not know its exact name, use may be made of the list entitled NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED, pages 579 to 600. Agencies are there grouped under the subjects with which they chiefly concern themselves.

ADVISORY COMMITTEE ON THE CENSUS; Cornell University, Ithaca, N. Y.; Walter F. Willcox, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, 6; constituent organizations, American Economic Association and American Statistical Association.

Purpose: To advise the Director of the Census concerning problems in connection with which he feels in need of assistance.

ALICE McDERMOTT MEMORIAL FUND; University of Washington, Seattle.

Activities: The income from the Fund has been devoted to research work on tuberculosis. Fellowships are maintained for suitably prepared students who give part of their time to investigation under supervision. Data have been accumulated and are being put in order for publication.

AMATEUR CINEMA LEAGUE, INC. (1926); 105 West 40th St., New York; Roy W. Winton, Mng. Dir.

Departments: Editorial, J. B. Carrigan; Clubs, Continuity, and Photoplays, Arthur L. Gale; Technical Matters, Russell C. Holslag.

Membership: Individuals, 2,400.

Purpose: To promote the development of amateur motion pictures and give assistance to individual amateurs by publication, correspondence, and consultation.

Publications: Movie Makers, monthly, price to members, $2.00 a year; to non-members, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF POLITICAL AND SOCIAL SCIENCE (1889); 3622 Locust St., Philadelphia: Dr. Ernest Minor Patterson, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 9,500.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a national forum for the discussion of political and social questions. The principal means to that end are publications and meetings.

Publications: The Annals, bi-monthly, price to non-members $5.00 a year in paper, or $7.50 in cloth.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1930, in Philadelphia.

AMERICAN ACADEMY OF SPEECH CORRECTION. *See* AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF DISORDERS OF SPEECH.

AMERICAN ALUMNI COUNCIL (1913); Arthur C. Busch, Secy.; Rutgers University, New Brunswick, N. J.

Membership: Individuals, 307.

Purpose and Activities: To promote friendly relations between members, the interchange of ideas on common problems, and a universal consciousness among college-trained citizens that education is man's greatest agency in the fight for freeing the human spirit.

Publications: Annual Report, $1.25. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION (1926); Room 2,812, 60 East 42d St., New York; Morse A. Cartwright, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 800; constituent organizations, 175.

Purpose: To serve as a clearing house for information in the field of adult education; to assist enterprises already in operation; to help organizations and groups to initiate adult education activities; and to aid and advise individuals who, although occupied with some primary vocation or interest, desire to continue learning by themselves.

Publications: Journal of Adult Education (American), 75 cents a copy, $3.00 a year, or free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Chapel Hill, N. C.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION. *See* ASSOCIATION OF COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HYGIENE AND BATHS, formerly American Association for Promoting Hygiene and Public Baths; 917 East 47th St., Chicago; Arthur M. Crane, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote bathing as a hygienic pastime. Free preliminary assistance is given to anyone interested in promoting swimming or bathing as a means of healthful recreation.

Publications: The Journal, 4 or more issues yearly, $1.00 a year; back numbers, 50 cents a copy.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Buffalo.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION (1906); 131 East 23d St., New York; John B. Andrews, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 3,095.

Activities: The Association scientifically investigates industrial conditions, drafts bills, and actively champions legislation, particularly to provide for the following: adequate compensation for industrial accidents and occupational diseases; prevention of unemployment and mitigation of its effects; old-age pensions; rock dusting to prevent coal-mine catastrophes; rehabilitation of industrial cripples; and one day of rest in seven. The Association investigates the administration of labor laws periodically. A specialized reference library is maintained and an information service provided for members. Reports on current labor problems are made through its periodical and through special leaflets, issued frequently. Annual and mid-year conferences provide opportunity for public discussion.

Publications: American Labor Legislation Review, quarterly, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in New Orleans.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR OLD AGE SECURITY (1927); 22 East 17th St., Room 701–2, New York; A. Epstein, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,100; constituent organizations, 20.

Purpose: To seek the establishment of adequate protection for the dependent aged.

Publications: Old Age Security Herald, monthly, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in New York.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR PROMOTING HYGIENE AND PUBLIC BATHS. *See* AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR HYGIENE AND BATHS.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE ORGANIZATION OF FAMILY SOCIAL WORK. *See* FAMILY WELFARE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED (1876); 722 West 168th St., New York; Howard W. Potter, Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 310.

Purpose: To study problems of the feeble-minded.

Publications: Proceedings, published annually, $2.50.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Atlanta.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS (1918); 18–20 E. Division St., Chicago; Helen Beckley, Exec. Secy., Kate McMahon, Part-time Educational Secy.

Membership: Active members, 953; associate, 378; corporate, 89; junior, 258; and district organizations, 12.

Purpose: To serve as an organ of intercommunication between medical social workers; to maintain and improve standards of social work in hospitals, dispensaries, special clinics, or other distinctly medical or psychiatric institutions; and to stimulate its intensive and extensive development. In addition to field visits and correspondence, local organization by functional and study committees is stimulated and correlated through similar committees of the American Association.

Publications: The Bulletin, 8 issues yearly, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in San Francisco.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF INSTRUCTORS OF THE BLIND (1853); B. S. Joice, Secy. and Treas., Bellefield Ave. and Bayard St., Pittsburgh.

Membership: Delegates—5 from each residential school for the blind; 3 from each public school system having an enrollment of 25 or more blind pupils; 1 from each library for the blind; and associate, honorary, or corresponding members as elected.

Purpose: To provide a means for consultation concerning problems relating to the education of the blind; to foster and promote movements having as their aim the improvement of such education.

Biennial meeting is held in even years, usually in June.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF MEDICAL-MILK COMMISSIONS, INC. (1907); 360 Park Pl., Brooklyn; Dr. Harris Moak, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Local medical milk commissions, 81.

Purpose and Activities: To unite local medical milk commissions and assist them in carrying out their purpose of promoting, but not engaging in, the production of certified milk which meets the standards of the Association.

Publications: Certified Milk, monthly, $1.50 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Montreal.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF MUSEUMS (1906); Smithsonian Institution, Washington, D. C.; Laurence Vail Coleman, Dir.

Departments: Editorial, L. C. Everard.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800, in addition to benefactors, patrons, life members, and contributors; institutions, 175.

Activities: The Association makes studies of conditions and methods, carries on fundamental researches, and arranges demonstrations—contributing in these ways to the educational and administrative advancement of museums and assisting in the establishment of new museums of desirable type.

Publications: The Museum News, 2 issues monthly from October to June inclusive; $2.00 a year or free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Philadelphia.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF OBSTETRICIANS, GYNECOLOGISTS, AND ABDOMINAL SURGEONS FOUNDATION, INC. (1929); 1825 Geddes Ave., Ann Arbor, Mich.; J. E. Davis, M.D., Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 126.

Activities: The Foundation will urge standardization of additional requirements for physicians who will practice obstetrics, gynecology, or abdominal surgery as specialties; and the making of prenatal care universal. It will conduct propaganda among women's clubs, health centers, parent-teacher associations, and any other appropriate organizations which are prepared to receive and desire to disseminate this type of medical knowledge. The Association proposes to issue in the near future a quarterly journal which will be used as a medium for the dissemination of knowledge concerning this work.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORKERS (1926); 50 Augur St., New Haven; Mildred Scoville, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 300.

Purpose: To promote the maintenance of high standards for psychiatric social work, the furtherance of professional interests, the interchange of experience common to members, and the general education and orientation of the related organizations and workers in this field.

Publications: News Letter, mailed to members and selected mailing list.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC WELFARE OFFICIALS (1930); Howard, R. I.; L. A. Halbert, Pres.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SCHOOL PHYSICIANS (1927); State Education Bldg., Albany; Dr. W. A. Howe, Secy. and Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 501.

Purpose: To stimulate greater interest among physicians in school medical inspection; to study and advise regarding health problems among school children; to cultivate a closer cooperative relationship among all agencies interested in school health work; and to improve that service.

Publications: Bulletin, monthly, $1.50 a year, or free to members.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Minneapolis.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL SERVICE EXCHANGES. *See* ASSOCIATION OF COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF SOCIAL WORKERS (1921); 130 East 22d St., New York; Walter West, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Membership, Mrs. Florence Taylor, Research, Margaretta Williamson.

Membership: Individuals, 4,600; urban, state, or regional chapters, 43.

Purpose and Activities: To bring together professional social workers for cooperative effort; to formulate and seek to establish professional ideals and standards; to encourage proper and adequate preparation and training; to disseminate information concerning social work as a profession; and to encourage and conduct appropriate investigation. The Research Department is making job analyses of positions in the several fields of social work.

Publications: The Compass, monthly, except August, $1.00 a year, or free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in San Francisco.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN (1882); 1634 Eye St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Kathryn McHale, Acting Dir.

Departments: Education, Kathryn McHale; Executive, Belle Rankin; International Relations, Esther Caukin; Comptroller, Mrs. James K. McClintock.

Membership: Individuals, 35,000; constituent organizations, 499.

Purpose: To unite the alumnæ of different institutions for practical educational work; for the collection and publication of statistical and other information concerning education; and, in general, for the maintenance of high standards of education.

Publications: Journal, quarterly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in New Orleans.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF VISITING TEACHERS (1919); name changed in 1929 from National Association of Visiting Teachers; 305 City Hall, Minneapolis, Julia K. Drew, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, active members, 169; associate members, 65.

Purpose: To unite the visiting teachers of the United States in matters of common interest, to establish standards, to collect and transmit information concerning their work, and to interpret the work of the visiting teacher to educators and social workers.

Publications: Visiting Teacher Bulletin, 3 issues yearly; free to members. Material in regard to visiting teacher work may be secured through the secretary. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held June 28 to July 4, 1930, in Columbus, Ohio.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF WORKERS FOR THE BLIND (1905); 1548 Central Parkway, Cincinnati; Calvin S. Glover, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 261.

Purpose: To consider and promote the education, employment, advancement, and general welfare of the blind of North America and the American dependencies through such measures and agencies as may be deemed best adapted to their needs.

Publications: Proceedings, $3.00.

Biennial convention was held in June, 1929, at Lake Wawasee, Ind.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF ZOOLOGICAL PARKS AND AQUARIUMS (1924); a subsidiary organization of the American Institute of Park Executives and the American Park Society; Box 422, Tulsa, Okla.; Will O. Doolittle, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 130.

Purpose: To promote and advance zoological parks and aquariums; to aid in the exchange and importation of zoological specimens; to provide exhibits for scientific, educational, and recreational purposes; and to aid in the preservation of wild life.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Miami.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION TO PROMOTE THE TEACHING OF SPEECH TO THE DEAF (1890); 1601 35th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Josephine B. Timberlake, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,200.

Purpose: To assist schools for the deaf in their efforts to teach speech and lip-reading; to provide information for parents of deaf children; to increase and diffuse knowledge relating to the deaf; to maintain a reference library on deafness and the deaf.

Publications: The Volta Review, monthly, $3.00 a year, or free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in June, 1928, in Staunton, Va.

AMERICAN BAR ASSOCIATION (1878); 209 South La Salle St., Chicago; Olive G. Ricker, Exec. Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the science of jurisprudence, promote the administration of justice and uniformity of legislation and of judicial decision throughout the Nation, uphold the honor of the profession of the law, and encourage cordial intercourse among the members of the American Bar. Activities related to the field of social work include those represented by the following sections or committees: American Citizenship, Criminal Law and Criminology, and Legal Aid Work.

Publications: Journal, monthly, $3.00 a year. Annual reports, $2.00 a copy.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Memphis.

AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE, INC. (1921); 152 Madison Ave., New York; Mrs. F. Robertson Jones, Pres.

Departments: Birth Control Review, Mrs. Stella Hanau; Field Work, Mrs. Edward C. Durfee; Executive, Mrs. Roger Howson; Medical, James F. Cooper, M.D.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,800; constituent organizations, 26.

Purpose: To work for the amendment or repeal of those laws which interfere with the prescription of contraception by physicians; to acquaint physicians with the most approved methods of contraception; to establish birth control clinics; to demonstrate to the public the importance of birth control to the family, the community, and the race.

Publications: Birth Control Review, monthly, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in New York.

AMERICAN BRAILLE PRESS FOR WAR AND CIVILIAN BLIND, INC. (1916); 730 Fifth Ave., New York; William Nelson Cromwell, Pres.

Departments: Executive Office, Julianne Harrison; Braille Printing Plant, George L. Raverat.

Membership: Individuals, 18.

Activities: Embosses books and periodicals in Braille, grades one and a half and two; distributes music in Braille; embosses books and periodicals in French, Italian, Polish, Roumanian, and Serbian Braille, all of which are distributed gratis throughout the world to libraries and institutions for the blind that circulate reading matter; also manufactures games and appliances for the blind.

Publications: American Review for the Blind (revised Braille, grade one and a half), monthly; Musical Review for the Blind (grade one and a half), monthly; International Braille Magazine (grade two), monthly; all 50 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION (1923); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Samuel J. Crumbine, M.D., Gen. Exec.

Divisions: Health Education, Anne Whitney; Medical Service, LeRoy A. Wilkes, M.D.; Publications and Promotion, Aida de Acosta Breckinridge; Public Health Regulations, Samuel J. Crumbine, M.D.; Research, George Truman Palmer, Dr.P.H.

Membership: Individuals, 1,400; affiliated local societies, approximately 250.

Purpose and Activities: To develop means for protecting and advancing the health of children from birth to maturity (a) by conducting field research and surveys, lending personnel for studies and demonstrations, organizing conferences, devising standards and programs of work, and carrying on a continuous educational campaign for the lay and professional public through technical and popular literature and other channels of publicity; and (b) by working with and through health, educational, and welfare organizations, both public and private, institutions for professional training, civic and social groups, and professional associations.

Publications: Child Health Bulletin, bi-monthly; American Child Health News, at intervals. List of material for sale will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Minneapolis.

AMERICAN CHILD HYGIENE ASSOCIATION. *See* AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION.

AMERICAN CITY PLANNING INSTITUTE (1917); 130 East 22d St., New York; Flavel Shurtleff, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 116.

Purpose: To study and advance the science and art of city and regional planning, to facilitate the exchange of experience among members, to encourage original research, and to make more general the application of planning principles in city and regional development.

Publications: The official organ of the Institute is City Planning, quarterly, $3.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Buffalo.

AMERICAN CIVIC ASSOCIATION, INC. (1904); 901 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Harlean James, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 1,750.

Activities: Covers the field of physical conservation, improvement, and land planning, in order to make the United States a better country in which to live, work, and play; conducts a civic information bureau, maintains a watch service on national legislation for the protection of national parks and other scenic assets, and for the right development of the City of Washington.

Publications: American Civic Annual, yearly, $3.00; Civic Comment, bi-monthly, included in $5.00 minimum membership. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Chicago and other cities in Illinois.

AMERICAN CIVIL LIBERTIES UNION, INC. (1917); succeeded the National Civil Liberties Bureau, in 1920; 100 Fifth Ave., New York; Roger N. Baldwin and Forrest Bailey, Joint Dirs.

Membership: Individuals, 2,500; constituent local or state organizations, 5.

Purpose: To protect freedom of speech, press, and assemblage by combating repressive legislation and the acts of officials in violation of civil liberties; to aid in defence of cases in courts and carry test cases to the higher courts.

Publications: Mimeographed weekly bulletins, $1.50 a year; monthly bulletins, 50 cents. List of pamphlets will be sent on request.

AMERICAN COLLEGE OF SURGEONS (1913); 54 East Erie St., Chicago; Franklin H. Martin, Dir. Gen.

Membership: Individuals who are graduates in medicine, licensed to practice in their respective states or provinces, and who have met the qualification requirements.

Activities: Clinical research, especially into cancer, bone sarcoma, and fractures; the fixing of standards for medical and surgical service in industry; medical and surgical literary research; hospital standardizations; cooperation in producing medical and surgical films of an approved quality; and the conduct of an annual Clinical Congress.

AMERICAN COUNCIL ON EDUCATION (1918); 26 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; C. R. Mann, Dir.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 25 national associations concerned with education; 240 institutions of higher education.

Purpose: To provide a central agency for cooperation on national problems of education.

Publications: The Educational Record, quarterly, $2.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN COUNTRY LIFE ASSOCIATION, INC. (1919); 105 East 22d St., New York; Benson Y. Landis, Exec. Secy.

Purpose: To promote discussion of the problems and objectives in country life and to facilitate the means of their solution and attainment; to further the efforts and increase the efficiency of persons and agencies engaged in this field; to disseminate information calculated to promote a better understanding of country life; and to aid in rural improvement.

Publications: Rural America, monthly, except July and August, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Ames, Iowa.

AMERICAN DENTAL ASSOCIATION (1860); 58 E. Washington St., Chicago; Dr. H. B. Pinney, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Business, L. T. Claridge; Editorial, C. N. Johnson, D.D.S.; Dental Health Educa-

tion, G. H. Wandel, D.D.S.; Library, Mrs. Josephine Hunt; Chemistry, Samuel G. Gordon, Ph.D.

Memberships: Individuals, approximately 35,000; constituent organizations, 57.

Purpose and Activities: To cultivate and promote the art and science of dentistry; to elevate and sustain the professional character and education of dentists; and to enlighten and direct public opinion in relation to oral hygiene, dental prophylaxis, and advanced scientific dental service.

Publications: The Journal of the American Dental Association, monthly, $2.50 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN DIETETIC ASSOCIATION (1918); Room 1118, 25 East Washington St., Chicago; Dorothy I. Lenfest, Bus. Mgr.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,600; affiliated local organizations, 11.

Purpose: To bring about closer cooperation between dietitians and those in allied fields, in order that more effective work may be done in improving the conditions and raising the standards of dietary work and in the training of dietitians.

Publications: The Journal of the American Dietetic Association, quarterly. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Detroit.

AMERICAN EUGENICS SOCIETY, INC. (1921); name changed in 1926 from Eugenics Committee of the United States; Room 317, 185 Church St., New Haven; Leon F. Whitney, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 1,049; non-member subscribers, 121; state committees, 30; branch society, 1.

Purpose: To forward the practical application of eugenic principles to the improvement of the American population through the promotion of eugenic research, the promotion of conservative eugenic legislation, and the promotion of eugenic administration.

Publications: Eugenics, monthly, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in New York.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF ARTS (1909); 801 Barr Bldg., Farragut Sq., Washington, D. C.; Leila Mechlin, Secy. and Ed.

Membership: Individuals, 4,531; constituent organizations, 440.

Purpose: To promote the increase of knowledge and an appreciation of art.

Publications: American Magazine of Art, monthly, $3.00 a year; American Art Annual, annually, $7.50; Art in Our Country, $1.50; American Art Sales, 7 issues yearly, $20.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Philadelphia.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF LABOR (1881); American Federation of Labor Bldg., Washington, D. C.; William Green, Pres.

Membership: Affiliated national and international unions, 105 (comprised of 28,865 local unions); 4 departments; 337 directly affiliated local unions; 48 state branches; and 799 city central bodies.

Purpose: To provide an agency of unions of workers as the spokesman through which the unions act on matters that concern more than one trade or group of workers.

Publications: American Federationist, monthly, $2.00 a year; Weekly News Letter, furnished to labor papers. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Toronto, Canada.

AMERICAN FEDERATION OF ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE HARD OF HEARING, INC. (1919); 1601 35th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Betty C. Wright, Secy.

Departments: Everywhere League, a correspondence club for the isolated hard of hearing, Mrs. Laura Stovel; Publicity and Exhibits, Elizabeth E. Sargent.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,450; constituent organizations, 47.

Activities: Acts in the national and international fields of social work for the deafened; encourages the founding of local organizations for the hard of hearing; and carries on national propaganda in the interests of the deafened and for the prevention of deafness.

Publications: The Auditory Outlook, monthly, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Cleveland.

AMERICAN FOLK DANCE SOCIETY (1916); 65 East 56th St., New York; Elizabeth Burchenal, Pres. and Dir.

Purpose: To collect and preserve folk dances, music, and related arts in the United States, and especially to teach and encourage the use and enjoyment of such of these arts as are especially adapted for general use by both adults and children. The activities include research and publication, assembling of authentic reference material, lectures, demonstrations, folk festivals, folk-dance institutes for leaders, and information service. The Society serves also as the United States section of the International Commission of Popular Arts.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN FOUNDATION FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC. (1928); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Clifford W. Beers, Secy.

Purpose: To give financial aid, in so far as its resources permit, to research and other work which will help conserve mental health, reduce and prevent nervous and mental disorders and mental defect, and improve the care and treatment of persons suffering from such disorders.

AMERICAN FOUNDATION FOR THE BLIND, INC. (1921); 125 East 46th St., New York; Robert B. Irwin, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Field, Charles B. Hayes.

Purpose: To collect and disseminate information regarding all phases of work for the blind; to promote state and federal legislation in behalf of the blind; to arrange for the establishment of needed agencies for the blind throughout the country; and to assist in every way possible to increase the efficiency of all branches of work for the blind.

Publications: Outlook for the Blind, 4 issues yearly, $2.00 a year, free to active members; The Teachers' Forum (for instructors of blind children; in ink-print and Braille), 5 issues yearly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, at Lake Wawasee, Ind.

AMERICAN FUND FOR PUBLIC SERVICE, INC. (1922); 2 West 13th St., New York; Robert W. Dunn, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To further movements for public welfare chiefly by support of enterprises in the field of organized labor, for the defense of civil liberties, and for the rights of minorities. Its major benefactions have been for the promotion of workers' education, research and publication in the fields of labor and imperialism, legal defense in labor cases, and advancement of the Negro. The Fund is commonly known as "The Garland Fund."

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN GENETIC ASSOCIATION (1903); 306 Victor Bldg., Washington, D. C., Dr. David Fairchild, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 3,000.

Purpose: To formulate the increase and diffusion of knowledge regarding heredity.

Publications: Journal of Heredity, monthly, $3.50 a year.

AMERICAN HEALTH CONGRESS. *See* NATIONAL HEALTH COUNCIL.

AMERICAN HEART ASSOCIATION, INC. (1924); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; I. C. Riggin, M.D., Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 809; constituent organizations, 32.

Purpose: To gather facts relating to heart disease and disseminate information as to its prevention and care; to develop and apply measures which will prevent heart disease; to encourage and assist in the development of new centers for cardiac work; to coordinate the work of centers for the prevention and care of heart disease; and to arouse the public, through publicity, to its responsibility and opportunity to combat heart disease.

Publications: American Heart Journal, bimonthly, $7.50 a year; Bulletin, bimonthly, free to members and sent on request; Directory of heart associations, committees, convalescent homes, and cardiac clinics, yearly, 25 cents, free to members; Annual Reports. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in New York.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION (1908); 620 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Alice L. Edwards, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Field Work in Child Development and Parental Education, Anna E. Richardson; Editorial, Helen W. Atwater.

Membership: Individuals, 9,725; constituent organizations, 54.

Purpose: To bring together those concerned in developing the art of right living, by the application of systematized knowledge to the problems of the home and the community; to develop home economics by means of curriculum building in schools and colleges, adequate training for professional service, and adequate, financially well-supported, and scientifically organized home economics research; to continue active work in child development and parental education; to cooperate with organizations with related interests; to give increased cooperation in movements intended to further the interests of consumers; and to develop closer relations with home economists and home economics institutions in other countries.

Publications: Journal of Home Economics, monthly, $3.00 a year; Association Bulletin, quarterly, sent to all members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Boston.

AMERICAN HOMEMAKERS, INC.; New England Village, Eastern States Exposition Grounds, West Springfield, Mass.; Mrs. Schuyler F. Herron, Exec. Dir.

Membership: Affiliated local organizations, 8.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the establishment of Home Information Centers and to cooperate with the centers already established. Home Information Centers provide opportunities for discussing all homemaking problems and for training in every phase of homemaking.

AMERICAN HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION (1899); 18 East Division St., Chicago; Dr. Bert W. Caldwell, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Hospital Library and Service Bureau, Charlotte Janes Garrison, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 3,550; constituent organizations, 15.

Purpose: To promote the welfare of the people, so far as it may be done, by the institution, care, and management of hospitals and dispensaries with efficiency and economy; to aid in procuring the cooperation of all organizations with similar aims and objects; and, in general, to do all things which may best promote hospital efficiency.

Publications: Bulletin, monthly, $2.00 a year or free to members; Transactions, published annually. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

AMERICAN HUMANE ASSOCIATION (1877); 80 Howard St., Albany; S. H. Coleman, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 7,999; constituent organizations, 200.

Purpose: To promote work for the protection of children and animals throughout the United States.

Publications: The National Humane Review, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in St. Louis.

AMERICAN INDIAN DEFENSE ASSOCIATION, INC. (1923); 37 Bliss Bldg., Washington, D. C.; John Collier, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 250; constituent organizations, 6.

Purpose and Activities: To secure justice and opportunity for American Indians; to assist in their self-help; to conserve their arts and cultures; to secure equitable laws affecting Indians; to render legal assistance to Indian tribes; to obtain the modernization and humanization of the federal government's Indian affairs system; and to enlist local political units in behalf of Indian welfare.

Publications: American Indian Life, about 4 issues yearly. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY (1909); 357 East Chicago Ave., Chicago; Andrew A. Bruce, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 250.

Purpose: To further the scientific study of crime, criminal law, and procedure; to formulate and promote measures for solving the problems connected therewith; and to coordinate the efforts of

individuals and of organizations interested in the administration of certain, speedy justice.

Publications: Journal of the American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology, 4 issues yearly, $3.50; Canada, $3.75; other countries, $4.00.

AMERICAN INSTITUTE OF PARK EXECUTIVES (1898); 224 Wakewa Ave., South Bend, Ind.; William H. Walker, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Recreation Division, Karl B. Raymond.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 850; constituent national organizations, American Park Society and American Association of Zoological Parks and Aquariums.

Purpose and Activities: To make more abundant facilities for a more expressive life for all.

Publications: Parks and Recreation, bimonthly, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Miami.

AMERICAN INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTE FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDHOOD (1927); Eduardo Acevedo, No. 1494, Montevideo, Uruguay; Dr. Luis Morquio, Dir.

Membership: The following governments: Argentina, Ecuador, Bolivia, Brazil, Cuba, Chile, Peru, Venezuela, and the United States.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a center for information, consultation, and publicity on all matters relating to child welfare in America. The Institute will collect and publish laws, regulations and official documents, collect and record information concerning public and private child welfare organizations and institutions, and collect statistics. At present the principal activity is the publication of its bulletin.

Publications: Boletin del Instituto Internacional Americano de Proteccion a la Infancia.

AMERICAN JEWISH COMMITTEE (1911); 171 Madison Ave., New York; Dr. Cyrus Adler, Pres.

Departments: Morris D. Waldman, Secy.; Harry Schneiderman, Asst. Secy.; Dr. H. S. Linfield, Statistical Department.

Membership: Individuals, 204; constituent national organizations, 17.

Purpose: To aid in obtaining and maintaining equal civil and religious rights for Jews in every part of the world; to take suitable action on threatened or actual violence of these rights; to secure for Jews equality of economic, social, and educational opportunity; and to prevent or stop discrimination, alleviate persecution, and relieve victims of calamities affecting Jews.

Publications: Annual report of the executive committee, free. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN JEWISH CONGRESS (1922); 33 West 42d St., New York; Bernard G. Richards, Exec. Dir.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 24 national and central organizations with branches in every city of the country.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the protection of Jewish minorities' rights abroad and the safeguarding of Jewish interests in the United States, through conferences with recognized authorities, research, and publicity. The Congress has concerned itself with implementing minorities rights clauses of peace treaties, anti-defamation, and immigration laws with a view to mitigating hardships.

Publications: Index, issued several times yearly, free. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in May, 1929, in Atlantic City.

AMERICAN LEAGUE TO ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT, INC. (1925); name changed in 1929 from League to Abolish Capital Punishment; 112 East 19th St., New York; Vivian Pierce, Exec. Secy.

Purpose: To abolish capital punishment in every state in the Union and in the District of Columbia.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in New York.

AMERICAN LEGION (1919); National Headquarters, 777 North Meridian St., Indianapolis; O. L. Bodenhamer, Natl. Commander.

Departments: Administration, James F. Barton; Child Welfare, Emma C. Puschner.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800,000; departments in each state and the District of Columbia and in nine foreign countries.

Purpose: To uphold and defend the Constitution of the United States of America; to maintain law and order; to foster and perpetuate a one hundred per cent Americanism; to preserve the memories and incidents of associations in the World War; to inculcate a sense of individual obligation to the community, state, and nation; to combat the autocracy of both the classes and the masses; to make right the master of might; to promote peace and goodwill on earth; to safeguard and transmit to posterity the principles of justice, freedom, and democracy; to consecrate and sanctify comradeship among ex-service men by devotion to mutual helpfulness.

Publications: The American Legion Monthly, $1.50 a year.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Louisville.

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION (1876); 520 North Michigan Ave., Chicago; Carl H. Milam, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 12,476; constituent organizations, 38.

Purpose: To assist in making books a vital, working, educational force in American life; to make libraries easily accessible to all the people; to raise professional standards; and to publish books, periodicals, and pamphlets which will aid in the establishment of libraries, and which will aid trustees and librarians in rendering library service.

Publications: Bulletin (of American Library Association), monthly, free to members, 25 cents a copy; Booklist, monthly, except August and September, $2.00 a year, 25 cents a copy; Adult Education and the Library, quarterly, $1.00 a year; Subscription Books Bulletin, quarterly, $1.00 a year, 35 cents a copy. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION (1847); 535 North Dearborn St., Chicago; Dr. Olin West, Secy. and Genl. Mgr.

Membership: Individuals, 98,205; constituent organizations, 54.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the science and art of medicine; and to aid in the betterment of public health. Activities related to social work include those represented by the Association's Council on Medical Education and Hospitals, Bureau of Legal Medicine and Legislation, Bureau of Health and Public Instruction, and Section on Preventive and Industrial Medicine and Public Health.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Portland, Ore.

AMERICAN MERCHANT MARINE LIBRARY ASSOCIATION (1921); Room 207, 67 Wall St., New York; Mrs. Henry Howard, Natl. Pres., Miss A. H. Lingsweiler, Dir.

Membership: Trustees, 25.

Purpose and Activities: To meet the demand of the men of the Merchant Marine for reading matter by providing an exchange library service to American ships. Isolated life-saving stations, lighthouses, and lightships are included in the service.

Publications: Annual Report, free. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN MOUTH HEALTH ASSOCIATION (1928); Essex Bldg., Minneapolis; Jacob G. Cohen, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To diffuse among the lay public an understanding of healthful living and how it may be obtained, with particular reference to mouth health. The work of the Association will be carried on in part by articles in newspapers and magazines, through the publication of pamphlets and booklets of an informative nature, through public lectures to the laity, and through direct replies to inquiries.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN MUSEUM OF SAFETY (1908); 141 East 29th St. (Museum, 120 East 28th St.), New York; A. A. Hopkins, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 250; constituent organizations, 100.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the prevention of accidental injury and loss of life and the elimination of hazards to the health of industrial workers and of the public.

Publications: Safety, bimonthly, free to members, $2.00 a year to non-members.

AMERICAN NATIONAL RED CROSS (1881); Washington, D. C.; Judge John Barton Payne, Chmn.; James L. Fieser, Vice-Chmn.; Ernest P. Bicknell, Vice-Chmn.; James K. McClintock, Vice-Chmn.

Departments: Disaster Relief, A. L. Schafer; First Aid and Life Saving, H. F. Enlows; Home Hygiene and Care of the Sick, Mrs. Isabelle W. Baker; Junior Red Cross, Harry Bruce Wilson; Nutrition Service, Clyde B. Schuman; Public Health Nursing, Elizabeth G. Fox; Volunteer Service, Mabel T. Boardman; War Service, Don C. Smith; Public Information and Roll Call, Douglas Griesemer; Speaking Service, Dr. Thomas E. Green; Accounts and Statistics, Howard J. Simons; Personnel and Civilian Home Service, J. Blaine Gwin.

Membership: Individuals, adults, 4,127,946, juniors, 6,878,423; chapters, 3,553.

Purpose: To furnish volunteer aid to the sick and wounded of armies in time of war; to act in matters of voluntary relief and in accord with the military and naval authorities as a medium of communication between the people of the United States of America and their Army and Navy; to act in such matters between similar national societies of other governments and the government and the people and the Army and Navy of the United States of America; to continue and carry on a system of national and international relief in time of peace; to mitigate the sufferings caused by pestilence, famine, fire, floods, and other national calamities, and to devise and carry on measures for preventing their recurrence.

Publications: The Red Cross Courier, $1.00 a year; The Junior News, and High School Service supplied to schools. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN NATURE ASSOCIATION (1922); 1214 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Arthur Newton Pack, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 111,760.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate public interest in every phase of nature and outdoor life, and to promote practical conservation of the natural resources of America.

Publications: Nature Magazine, monthly, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN NATURE STUDY SOCIETY (1908); Brooklyn Botanic Garden, Brooklyn; Ellen Eddy Shaw, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 225.

Purpose: To promote critical investigation of all phases of nature education in schools; to work for the establishment in schools of such nature education as has been demonstrated to be valuable and practical; to cooperate with organizations interested in nature activities not associated with schools; and to undertake research concerning the value of nature work in education.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in Des Moines.

AMERICAN NURSES' ASSOCIATION (1896); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Janet M. Geister, R.N., Dir.

Departments: Headquarters, Alma H. Scott, R.N.; Publicity, Virginia McCormick; Office Staff, Jean O. Evans; Editorial, Mary M. Roberts, Katharine A. DeWitt, R.N.

Membership: Individuals, 79,051.

Purpose: To promote the professional and educational advancement of nurses in every proper way; to establish and maintain a code of ethics among nurses; and to elevate the standard of nursing education.

Publications: American Journal of Nursing, monthly, $3.00 a year; Bulletin, 10 issues yearly, free on request; Digest of Laws Requiring Registration of Nurses, biennially, 75 cents; List of Schools Accredited by State Boards of Examiners, biennially, $1.50. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in June, 1928, in Louisville.

AMERICAN OCCUPATIONAL THERAPY ASSOCIATION (1917); 175 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Eleanor Clarke Slagle, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 900.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the education and training of occupational therapists; to establish a national register of qualified technicians to diffuse knowledge as to the aims and methods of occupational therapy; to further its use with the sick and disabled and to stimulate scientific research in the field. Activities include advice in connection with organization or other problems;

surveys and recommendations in particular fields, on request; and the maintenance of a placement service for trained technicians and for the protection of hospitals from unqualified persons posing as occupational therapists.

Publications: Occupational Therapy and Rehabilitation, bimonthly, $5.00 or free to active members. Pamphlets for distribution.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

AMERICAN OTOLOGICAL SOCIETY, INC., CENTRAL BUREAU OF RESEARCH; Fifth Ave. and 103d St., New York; Mary R. Taylor, Secy. of the Bureau.

Purpose and Acitivities: To promote a continuing and correlated effort to solve otological problems. The Bureau is continuing the investigation of otosclerosis (chronic, progressive deafness) which was begun under a grant from the Carnegie Corporation.

AMERICAN PARK SOCIETY; 224 Wakewa Ave., South Bend, Ind.; Walter Wright, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 350.

Purpose: To make more abundant facilities for a more expressive life for all.

Publications: Parks and Recreation, bimonthly, $3.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Miami.

AMERICAN PRINTING HOUSE FOR THE BLIND, INC. (1858); 1839 Frankfort Ave., Louisville, Ky.; A. C. Ellis, Supt.

Purpose: To print books for blind readers in Braille, grade one and a half, the standard embossed type for the United States. Books produced from national grants are divided upon a per capita basis to all schools throughout the country.

AMERICAN PRISON ASSOCIATION (1870); 135 East 15th St., New York; E. R. Cass, Gen. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 650.

Purpose: To study the causes of crime and to promote the improvement of laws in relation to public offenses and offenders; the improvement of penal, correctional, and reformatory institutions; and the development and improvement of methods relating to probation, parole, and the after-care of released prisoners.

Publications: The Newsletter, 4 issues yearly, free; Annual Proceedings, $3.00 each. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Toronto, Canada.

AMERICAN PROTESTANT HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION (1920); 2635 Erie Ave., Hyde Park, Cincinnati; Dr. Frank C. English, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Public Relations, Matthew O. Foley; Finance, E. S. Gilmore; National and State Legislation, G. W. Olsen; Nurses' Training, Mrs. Robert Jolly; Membership, J. B. Franklin; Standardization of Hospital Supplies, John H. Olsen; University Training of Hospital Executives, C. S. Pitcher; Historian, Herman L. Fritschel.

Membership: Individuals, 350; constituent organizations, 85.

Purpose and Activities: To associate all hospitals affiliated with Protestant churches for the sake of reaching the highest standards; to recruit student nurses for schools of proper standards; to encourage schools of nursing to train their students in strong Christian spirit; to secure church and public assistance for Protestant hospitals; and to bring hospital aid to the neglected poor and to those living in remote places.

Publications: Two periodicals issued annually. They contain general information and the proceedings of the annual meeting. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

AMERICAN PSYCHIATRIC ASSOCIATION (1844); Hudson River State Hospital, Poughkeepsie, New York; Dr. C. O. Cheney, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 1,325.

Purpose: To study all subjects pertaining to mental disease and defects, including the care, treatment, and promotion of the best interests of the insane, epileptic, feeble-minded, and related classes.

Publications: American Journal of Psychiatry, bimonthly, $6.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Atlanta.

AMERICAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION (1872); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Homer N. Calver, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, about 4,000; constituent organizations, 14.

Purpose and Activities: To protect and promote public health by the following means: a monthly journal; an annual meeting; the conduct of surveys and an information service; and studies and reports of over 50 volunteer technical committees which are concerned with problems of public health administration, research, education, and standardization. See the separate listing of the Association's Committee for Completing the Registration Area Before 1930.

Publications: American Journal of Public Health (now including The Nation's Health), monthly, $5.00 a year, or free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Minneapolis.

AMERICAN RED CROSS. *See* AMERICAN NATIONAL RED CROSS.

AMERICAN REHABILITATION COMMITTEE, INC. (1922); 28 East 21st St., New York; Frederic G. Elton, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Curative Workshop and Publication, Grace C. Heagen.

Purpose: To promote interest and work in behalf of the disabled, physically, mentally, and vocationally.

Publications: Rehabilitation Review, monthly, $2.00 a year.

AMERICAN SEAMEN'S FRIEND SOCIETY (1828); 72 Wall St., New York; George Sidney Webster, D.D., Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote welfare work for seamen in the port of New York and the ports of other countries through its central office and through affiliated agencies in the United States and elsewhere. Loan libraries are put aboard American ships.

Publications: Sailors' Magazine and Seamen's Friend, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION (1914); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; William F. Snow, M.D., Gen. Dir.

Departments: Educational, Dr. Max J. Exner; Medical, Dr. Walter Clarke; Public Information, Doris G. Chandler; Legal and Protective Measures, Bascom Johnson; Family Relations, Mrs. Anna Garlin Spencer.

Membership: Individuals, 11,477; constituent organizations, 18.

Purpose: To advance sound sex education, to combat prostitution and sex delinquency, to aid public authorities in the campaign against venereal diseases, to advise in organization of state and local social hygiene programs, and to provide a better understanding of the social hygiene movement.

Publications: Journal of Social Hygiene, monthly, except July, August, and September, $3.00 a year; Social Hygiene News, semi-monthly, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1929, in New York.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER, INC. (1913); 25 West 43d St., New York; C. C. Little, Sc.D., Dir.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 3,000.

Purpose: To collect, collate, and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment, and prevention of cancer; to investigate the conditions under which cancer is found; and to compile statistics in regard thereto.

Publications: Campaign Notes, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF DISORDERS OF SPEECH (1925); name changed in 1928 from American Academy of Speech Correction; Sara M. Stinchfield, Secy.; 1 Bridgeman Lane, South Hadley, Mass.

Membership: Individuals, 26.

Purpose: To stimulate among educators more intelligent interest in problems of speech correction; to raise standards among workers in speech correction; to secure public recognition of the practice

of speech correction as an organized profession; to furnish the profession with responsible and authoritative leadership; to make leadership respected by means of scholarly research, publicity, and administrative skill; and to make membership a coveted honor and recognition of merit. The organization is a branch of the National Association of Teachers of Speech.

Publications: Quarterly Journal of Speech, $2.50 a year. Articles in Journal of Expression, $3.50 a year.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in New York.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THRIFT (1913); 9 East 46th St., New York; Henry R. Daniel, Secy.

Departments: Education, Arthur H. Chamberlain.

Purpose: To promote thrift throughout the United States by education and discussion, with a view to its inclusion in the public school curriculum.

Publications: Thrift Magazine, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

AMERICAN SOCIOLOGICAL SOCIETY (1905); 1126 East 59th St., Chicago; E. W. Burgess, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a basic, scientific, sociological study of society and its problems. An annual census of sociological research in progress is conducted, and an annual meeting held for the presentation and discussion of research methods and findings. Sections are entitled: Rural Sociology, Educational Sociology, The Community, The Family, Sociology of Religion, Sociology and Psychiatry, and Sociology and Social Work.

Publications: American Journal of Sociology, bimonthly, $4.00 a year; Proceedings (of the annual meeting), $3.15. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION (1839); Room 530, 236 Wooster St., New York; Willford I. King, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 2,100; constituent organizations, 10.

Purpose: A professional organization of statisticians which aims to promote the education of the public in statistical technique, and the improvement of available statistics. See separate listing of its Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics.

Publications: Journal of the American Statistical Association, quarterly, $6.00 a year; Annals of Mathematical Statistics, quarterly, $6.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

AMERICAN THEATRE ASSOCIATION. *See* CHURCH AND DRAMA LEAGUE OF AMERICA, INC.

AMERICAN VOCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, INC. (1906); name changed in 1926 from National Society for the Promotion of Vocational Education; Room 225, State House, Indianapolis; Paul W. Chapman, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 8,325; constituent organizations, 42.

Purpose and Activities: To assume and maintain active national leadership in the promotion of vocational education; to render service to state or local communities in the field promoting vocational education; to provide a national forum for the discussion of all questions involved; and to unite vocational education interests through a membership representative of the entire country.

Publications: News Bulletin, quarterly, free to members.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in New Orleans.

AMERICAN WHITE CROSS (1919); 5562 Stuart Bldg., Seattle; Rev. M. A. Matthews, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 32, constituent chapters, 12.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the formation of chapters throughout the country; to prepare and distribute literature concerning drug addiction; to have textbooks prepared for public schools; to aid in the apprehension of those who sell narcotics; to provide for their punishment; and to urge international action to suppress excessive production.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in Seattle.

ANNA T. JEANES FOUNDATION. *See* NEGRO RURAL SCHOOL FUND, ANNA T. JEANES FOUNDATION.

APOSTOLATE OF SUFFERING (1926); 513 34th St., Milwaukee; Clara M. Tiry, Gen. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, about 5,000, in almost all states and in several foreign countries.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the spiritual welfare of the sick and infirm, the crippled and defective by uniting them in this pious union as in one large family; by having Holy Masses offered for them; and by instilling into their hearts patience and resignation by means of a quarterly publication. A traveling library is operated, books being sent without charge throughout the United States. Reading matter is also supplied to patients in hospitals and sanitaria.

Publications: Our Good Samaritan, quarterly (September, December, March, and June), sent free to members, 25 cents for nonmembers. List of publications will be sent on request.

ARMY RELIEF SOCIETY (1900); 163 East 65th St., New York; Mrs. Arthur W. W. Page, Pres.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 20 branches in different parts of the country.

Purpose and Activities: To collect funds and provide relief in the case of emergency for dependent widows and orphans of officers and enlisted men of the Regular Army of the United States; to aid in securing employment for such beneficiaries; and to solicit and create scholarships and supervise educational opportunities for beneficiaries.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in New York.

ASSOCIATED GLEE CLUBS OF AMERICA (1924); 113 West 57th St., New York; E. Gordon Dawbarn, Secy.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 115 glee clubs.

Purpose and Activities: To unite in cooperative work member clubs throughout the United States and Canada, and promote the extension of fine chorus singing among men and boys of America for the education and benefit of the nation and the advancement of musical art.

Publications: "The Keynote," four issues yearly, a small subscription fee.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in New York.

ASSOCIATED OUTDOOR CLUBS OF AMERICA: Walter Adams Johnson; Great Oak Lane, Pleasantville, N. Y.

ASSOCIATES FOR GOVERNMENT SERVICE, INC. (1923); Fisk Bldg., 250 West 57th St., New York; E. Stagg Whitin, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 5 directors.

Activities: The organization formulates specifications for commodities manufactured in the prisons of one state and sold to the purchasing departments of other states. It is supported by voluntary contributions and by a small service fee.

ASSOCIATION FOR RESEARCH IN NERVOUS AND MENTAL DISEASE (1920); 117 East 72d St., New York; Dr. Henry A. Riley, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, about 300.

Purpose: For the promotion of research in nervous and mental disease.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in New York.

ASSOCIATION OF COLLEGIATE ALUMNÆ. *See* AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF UNIVERSITY WOMEN.

ASSOCIATION OF COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS (1918); name changed in 1927 from American Association for Community Organization; 1815 Graybar Bldg., 43d St. and Lexington Ave., New York; Allen T. Burns, Exec. Dir

Departments: Field Work, Ralph H. Blanchard; Information Service, Homer W. Borst.

Membership: Constituent organizations, local community chests and councils, 181.

Purpose: To assist in the improvement of joint finance and joint planning of social work through committee activities, research, correspondence, field visits, local studies of chests and councils, conferences, direction of financial campaigns, and publications.

Publications: News Bulletin, 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year, free to members; Directory of Chests and Councils, annually, $1.00, free to members; Publicity Exchange Bulletin, 10 issues yearly, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA (1913); name changed in 1914 from Association of Governmental Labor Officials; 612 Bremer Arcade, St. Paul; Louise E. Schutz, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 32 labor departments.

Purpose: To act as a medium for the exchange of information for and by the members of the organization; to secure better legislation for the welfare of women and children in industry; to promote greater safety to life and property; to promote greater uniformity in labor law enforcement by establishing safety standards and compiling and disseminating labor and employment statistics; and to correlate more closely the activities of the federal, state, and provincial departments of labor.

Publications: Annual Report.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Toronto, Canada.

ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR LEAGUES OF AMERICA, INC. (1921); 140 East 63d St., New York; Emily T. Anderson, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Field, Katharine G. Rogers; Editorial, Mrs. Chas. A. Lindley; Junior League Shops, Mrs. Bennett Gates; National Arts and Interests, Mary D. Hand; Children's Theatre, Helenka Adamowska.

Membership: Individuals, about 21,000; constituent leagues, 114.

Purpose and Activities: To unite in one body all Junior Leagues, and to promote their individual purposes; namely, to foster interest among their members in the social, economic, educational, cultural, and civic conditions of their own communities; and to make efficient their volunteer service. The Association conducts a welfare department, a bureau for children's theatre, a shop bureau, and a national arts and interests bureau.

Publications: The Junior League Magazine, monthly, except July and August, $3.00 a year; Annual Report; Welfare Survey, periodically, $1.50; Theatre Bureau Bulletin, periodically; Shop Bureau Bulletin, periodically.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in New Orleans.

ASSOCIATION OF TRAINING SCHOOLS FOR PROFESSIONAL SOCIAL WORK (1919); 950 East 59th St., Chicago; Ruth Emerson, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Schools of social work, or universities or colleges with departments for the training of social workers, 28. *See* EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK for a list of these schools or departments.

Purpose: To develop standards of training for professional social work.

ASSOCIATION OF URBAN UNIVERSITIES (1914); 25 Niagara Square, Care University of Buffalo, Buffalo, N. Y.; C. S. March, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Constituent organizations, about 38 city universities in the United States and Canada.

Purpose and Activities: To function as a clearing house of experience of city universities.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Cincinnati.

ASSOCIATION OF WOMEN IN PUBLIC HEALTH; 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Mrs. Walter McNabb Miller, Secy.

Purpose: To safeguard the interests of women employed in the public health field, and to induce capable women to enter that field.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Minneapolis.

BAKER (JUDGE) FOUNDATION. *See* JUDGE BAKER FOUNDATION.

BARON DE HIRSCH FUND (1890); 233 Broadway, New York; Eugene S. Benjamin, Man'g Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 13.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the Americanization of Jewish immigrants, their distribution and instruction in trades and agriculture, and the development of agriculture among them; to aid agriculture through the Jewish Agricultural Society and the granting of scholarships in agricultural schools; and to assist immigration and port work through subsidized societies.

BEHAVIOR RESEARCH FUND (1926); 907 South Lincoln St., Chicago; Professor Ernest W. Burgess, Ph.D., Act'g Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To carry on a five-year inquiry into human conduct. Studies are under way in the fields of sociology, biology, child development, delinquency, and so forth. They are based to a great extent on material provided by the Institute for Juvenile Research, and are carried on in close cooperation with that organization. (See its listing.)

Publications: Behavior Research Fund monographs, published by the University of Chicago Press.

BETTER HOMES IN AMERICA, INC. (1923); 1653 Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, D. C.; James Ford, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Asst. Dir., Julia D. Connor; Research, Blanche Halbert.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 5,960.

Purpose: Aims, through local volunteer committees, to put knowledge of high standards in house building, home furnishing and equipment, and home life within the reach of all citizens; to encourage the building and demonstration of sound, attractive, economical, single-family houses, and the reconditioning and remodeling of old houses within the reach of families in moderate circumstances.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BIG BROTHER AND BIG SISTER FEDERATION, INC. (1917); 425 Fourth Ave., New York; Rowland C. Sheldon, Exec. Secy.

Departments: New England Region, Charles Brandon Booth; Great Lakes Region, Herbert D. Williams, Ph.D.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 86.

Purpose: To prevent delinquency by personal, individual and intensive effort; to extend the Big Brother and Big Sister movement throughout the United States, Canada, and elsewhere; to render advice and information to existing groups; to conduct conferences, training courses, and seminars; to publish theses and descriptive or educational papers on subjects in this field.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in March, 1930, in New York.

BIRTH CONTROL CLINICAL RESEARCH BUREAU (1923); 17 West 16th St.; Mrs. Margaret Sanger, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 12 members of the advisory council.

Purpose: To provide clinical facilities for such patients as may be entitled to contraceptive advice under the laws of New York State; and to engage in scientific investigation of contraceptive methods, under the supervision of an advisory board of gynecologists and obstetricians.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BLUE ANCHOR SOCIETY (1880); 105 East 22d St., New York; Mrs. Roper B. Woolfolk, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 35.

Purpose and Activities: To provide clothing for shipwrecked persons rescued by the coast guards.

BOY RANGERS OF AMERICA, INC. (1922); 186 Fifth Ave., New York; Emerson Brooks, Natl. Chief Ranger.

Departments: Bureau representing official ranger camps, S. L. Toplitz; Editorial, Chas. E. Hawkes, Emerson Brooks.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 860 chartered lodges.

Purpose: To promote the establishment of Boy Ranger lodges throughout the United States. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: The Boy Ranger, bimonthly, 60 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

BOY SCOUTS OF AMERICA (1910); 2 Park Ave., New York; James E. West, Chief Scout Exec.

Departments: Field, George J. Fisher, M.D.; Camping, L. L. McDonald; Education, Roy O. Wyland; Inter-racial Relations, Stanley A. Harris; Editorial, E. S. Martin; Publicity, F. M. Robinson; Boys' Life, James E. West; Library, Franklin K. Mathiews; Supply, Earle W. Beckman; Sea Scout, Thomas J. Keane; Troop Service, George W. Ehler; Rural Scouting, O. H. Benson; Personnel, E. A. Stowell; Younger Boy Character Education Research, H. H. Hurt.

Membership: Individuals, 842,540; first class councils, 633.

Purpose: To promote, through organization and cooperation with other agencies, the abilities of boys to do things for themselves and others; to train them in scout craft, and to teach them patriotism, courage, self-reliance, and kindred virtues, using the methods which are now in common use by Boy Scouts, by placing emphasis upon the Scout Oath and Law for character development, citizenship training, and physical fitness. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: Boys' Life, $2.00 a year, monthly; Scouting, 50 cents a year, monthly. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in New York:

BOYS' CLUB FEDERATION OF AMERICA (1906); name changed in 1929 from Boys' Club Federation International; in 1915 from Federated Boys' Clubs; 630 Graybar Bldg., 420 Lexington Ave., New York; C. J. Atkinson, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Educational, R. K. Atkinson; Field, Alexander Campbell; Promotion, Warren D. Pierce.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 241.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as the medium through which the Boys' Clubs of the country may work unitedly; to promote the organization of Boys' Clubs and carry on educational work in that field. Studies are made of community problems with respect to boy life; also advisory surveys as to progress and function of local clubs. Speakers, organizers, permanent workers, and literature are provided. No control is exercised over local clubs and no responsibilities are assumed for them.

Publications: Boys' Club News Bulletin, monthly, free; Boys' Club Round Table, quarterly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Boston.

BROOKINGS INSTITUTION (1927); 26 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; Harold G. Moulton, Pres.

Departments: Institute of Economics; Institute for Government Research; and Training Division.

Purpose and Activities: To promote research and training in the humanistic or social sciences. The Institution conducts research on important national and international economic and administrative problems and promotes efficiency in government organization, federal and state. It also provides opportunities for research training at the super-graduate level, and maintains a center for visiting scholars in Washington.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BRUSH FOUNDATION; 2109 Adelbert Road, Cleveland, Ohio.

Purpose: To promote the betterment of population as fundamental to the well-being of humanity. At present the largest part of the work will be research in the line of betterment of the human stock and population limitation.

BUFFALO FOUNDATION (1919); 714 Marine Trust Bldg., Buffalo; Frances M. Hollingshead, M.D., Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To carry on such social research and community activities as its Governing Committee may decide. Research relating to local problems and needs has been a constant activity, the results being published to as great a degree as is compatible with the wishes of those for whom studies are made.

Publications: Foundation Forum, usually 10 issues yearly, free. Copies are sent regularly to 800 local persons, and on request to outsiders.

BUREAU OF COMMERCIAL ECONOMICS, INC. (1913); 1108 16th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; A. Maris Boggs, Dir.

Membership: Individuals and constituent organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To promote international goodwill and mutual understanding among nations

by means of educational motion pictures and lectures, free to members; cooperates with all major governments of the world; supported entirely by voluntary contributions and memberships; pamphlets furnished without charge in connection with lectures.

Publications: No film lists are published, but on any subject for which information is asked by members lists of available films will be furnished.

BUREAU OF EASTERN STATES AGRICULTURAL AND INDUSTRIAL LEAGUE. *See* JUNIOR ACHIEVEMENT.

BUREAU OF EDUCATION. *See* OFFICE OF EDUCATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR.

BUREAU OF GOODWILL INDUSTRIES (1919); 1701 Arch St., Philadelphia; E. J. Helms, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 16; constituent local organizations, 54 in the United States, 16 abroad.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage the establishment of Goodwill Industries in local communities, counsel in the operation of those established, assist in training leadership, and develop standards for techniques and service. Goodwill Industries, through the skillful utilization of discarded materials, provide employment for the crippled, the aged, and the unfortunate. By the inspiration of religion, by providing industrial education and opportunities for work, it is sought to prevent pauperism, relieve the temporary distresses of the unfortunate, and train the unskilled and the handicapped in self-supporting occupations.

Publications: The Goodwill, quarterly, 25 cents a year.

Annual meetings were held in February and March, 1929, in Los Angeles and San Francisco.

BUREAU OF HOME ECONOMICS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE (1923); Washington, D. C.; Dr. Louise Stanley, Chief.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct research on problems connected with the home. Included are studies of foods and nutrition, textiles and clothing, family budgets, and the use of them in housework.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF IMMIGRATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1819); Washington, D. C.; Harry C. Hull, Com'r Gen'l.

Purpose: To administer the laws dealing with the admission of aliens to the United States and their residence within the country.

BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR (1824); Washington, D. C.; C. J. Rhoads, Com'r.

Purpose: To promote the welfare of the Indians of the United States.

Publications: Annual Report, for distribution. List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF INDUSTRIAL HOUSING AND TRANSPORTATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR; 200 New Jersey Ave., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Lulah T. Andrews, Dir.

BUREAU OF JEWISH SOCIAL RESEARCH, INC. (1919); Room 402, 71 West 47th St., New York; Harry L. Lurie, Dir.

Departments: Surveys, Harry L. Lurie; Field, George W. Rabinoff; Statistics, David M. Schneider.

Purpose: To study Jewish philanthropic and communal work on behalf of individual organizations, federations of Jewish philanthropies, or other Jewish community representative groups or organizations, and on behalf of private individuals; and to assist Jewish philanthropic and communal organizations in planning their activities.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF LABOR STATISTICS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1885); 1712 G St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Ethelbert Stewart, Commissioner of Labor Statistics.

Purpose: To collect information as to the prosperity of the wage-earners of the country.

Publications: Monthly Labor Review, monthly, $1.50 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF MINES, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE (1910); 17th and F Sts., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Scott Turner, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To study the problems of safety and health in the mining industry with the view to reducing the death and accident rate among employes; to investigate problems of efficiency leading to the production of minerals at reduced cost and the development of mineral deposits which otherwise could not be worked profitably.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF NATURALIZATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1906); 1712 G St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Raymond F. Crist, Com'r of Naturalization.

Activities: Has charge of all matters concerning the naturalization of aliens.

Publications: Pamphlet on "Naturalization, Citizenship, and Expatriation Laws," 20 cents a copy.

BUREAU OF PENSIONS, VETERANS' ADMINISTRATION (1833); Washington, D. C.; Earl D. Church, Com'r.

Purpose: To administer federal laws granting pensions arising out of service with the United States military and naval forces, and also laws providing for the retirement of civil service employes.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION; Room 1745, Graybar Bldg., 420 Lexington Ave., New York; Henry C. Metcalf, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 3; cooperating lecturers and assistants, 25.

Purpose and Activities: Through research, conference, counsel, training, and publication to help develop—for the common benefit of employers, managers, workers, and the public—integrated thinking and constructive direction of the basic policies, principles, and operating techniques of business administration and management. The Bureau's activities include, among others, counseling service rendered chiefly to corporations on personnel, management-audit and all human relations problems, and research varying from analysis on short-time limited problems to extended studies, such as one on employee representation.

Publications: An annual series of mimeographed reports of conferences on Business Management as a Profession, $10 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE, UNITED STATES. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY.

BUREAU OF PUBLIC PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION (1922); 923 East 60th St., Chicago; Fred Telford, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as a clearing house and research agency for the public personnel agencies (civil service commissions and similar bodies) of the United States and Canada, and to publish the results of its researches in suitable form. Acts as headquarters for the Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada.

Publications: Public Personnel Studies, monthly, $5.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in August, 1929, in Ottawa, Canada.

BUREAU OF SOCIAL HYGIENE, INC. (1912); 61 Broadway, New York; Lawrence B. Dunham, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the study, amelioration, and prevention of social conditions, diseases, and actions which adversely affect the well-being of mankind; and to assist undertakings directed toward the improvement of social conditions. The Bureau supports fundamental research in the biological aspects of sex; contributes to organizations primarily interested in social hygiene; and interests itself particularly at present in all problems in the sphere of criminology, including those of administration, teaching, and research.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

BUREAU OF STANDARDS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE (1901); Washington, D. C.; George K. Burgess, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the development, construction, custody, and maintenance of

reference and working standards and their intercomparison, improvement, and application in science, engineering, industry, and commerce. Such standards include specifications covering a wide variety of commodities. The particular activity most closely related to the field of social work is the establishment of commodity specifications to meet the needs of agencies purchasing articles made by penal institutions.

BUREAU OF THE CENSUS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE (1902); Washington, D. C.; William M. Steuart, Dir.

Departments: Asst. Dir., Joseph A. Hill; Chief Clerk, Arthur J. Hirsch; Population, Leon E. Truesdell; Agriculture, William L. Austin; Manufactures, LeVerne Beales; Cotton and Vegetable Oils, Harvey J. Zimmerman; Distribution, Robert J. McFall; Financial Statistics of States and Cities, Starke M. Grogan; Vital Statistics, Dr. T. F. Murphy.

Purpose: To take the decennial census of the United States, and to collect other statistics periodically on a variety of subjects, as authorized by law.

Publications: Survey of Current Business (monthly bulletin), $1.50 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

BURKE (WINIFRED MASTERSON) RELIEF FOUNDATION. *See* STURGIS FUND.

CAMP FIRE GIRLS, INC. (1911); 41 Union Sq., New York; Lester F. Scott, Natl. Exec.

Departments: Field, Edith M. Kempthorne; Publications, C. Frances Loomis; Hand Craft and National Honors, Helen M. Biggart; Records and Correspondence, Mary O'Brien.

Membership: Camp fire girls and blue birds, 173,111; constituent groups of such girls, 8,050.

Purpose: To perpetuate the spiritual ideals of the home through the organization of girls into Camp Fire groups; to stimulate and aid the formation of habits making for health and character; and to improve social life in the community or group through the promotion of such activities as pageants, celebrations, social centers, organized vacations, tramping, amateur drama, and music. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: The Guardian (a bulletin of news and suggestions for Camp Fire leaders), monthly, except July and August, 50 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

CARNEGIE CORPORATION OF NEW YORK (1911); 522 Fifth Ave., New York; F. P. Keppel, Pres.

Purpose and Activities: The advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding among the people of the United States, Canada, and the British Colonies.

CARNEGIE FOUNDATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF TEACHING (1906); 522 Fifth Ave., New York; Clyde Furst, Secy.

Activities: In addition to the establishment of retiring allowances for teachers in colleges, universities, and technical schools, the Foundation has a Division of Educational Enquiry, the functions of which include investigation and report upon educational agencies which undertake to deal with the intellectual, social, and moral progress of mankind. Published studies relating to social work include Federal Aid for Vocational Education, 1917, and Justice and the Poor, 1919.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

CARNEGIE INSTITUTION OF WASHINGTON (1902); Washington, D. C.; W. M. Gilbert, Administrative Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage in the broadest and most liberal manner investigation, research, and discovery, and the application of knowledge to the improvement of mankind. Certain of the Institution's research projects are related to the field of social work. In this category a few studies should be included which have been undertaken by its Department of Genetics, its Nutrition Laboratory, and its Division of Historical Research.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

CATHOLIC BOYS' BRIGADE OF THE UNITED STATES, INC. (1916); 316 West 85th St., New York; Rev. Kilian J. Hennrich, Pres.-Dir. Gen.

Departments: Organization, Michael F. Lonergan; Education, Kilian J. Hennrich; Quartermaster, John J. Morris.

Membership: Constituent organizations, branches in 25 dioceses.

Purpose: To promote the spiritual, moral, mental, physical, social, and civic welfare of all boys, for purposes of good citizenship and common service; and to accomplish the foregoing by giving voluntary aid and instruction to units doing recreational, educational, and preventive work among boys, training their minds and bodies by means of military drill, physical exercises, signaling, first aid, civics, music, athletics, instruction, recreation, sports, outings, camping, parades, and other congenial activities.

Publications: Metropolitan Brigade News, 5 issues yearly, free. List of publications will be sent on request.

CATHOLIC CENTRAL VEREIN OF AMERICA (1885); 3835 Westminster Pl., St. Louis; Fred. P. Kenkel, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 160,000; constituent organizations, local, 1,140 and state, 18.

Purpose: To promote a Christian philosophy of life and apply its ideals to industrial, commercial, social, civic, and political problems; and to foster brotherly love, advance civic virtue, and the fulfillment of public duty.

Publications: Social Justice and Central Blatt, monthly, $2.00 a year; Catholic Women's Bulletin, monthly, 50 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Salem, Ore.

CATHOLIC CONFERENCE ON INDUSTRIAL PROBLEMS (1921); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Rev. R. A. McGowan, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 200.

Purpose: To promote the study and understanding of industrial problems through national and regional conferences.

Publications: Proceedings of the Conference, published annually, $1.00, or free to members. Reports of regional meetings, five cents each, or free to members; list will be sent on request.

Regional meetings were held during 1929 in six places.

CATHOLIC DAUGHTERS OF AMERICA; 10 West 71st St., New York; Katharine M. Rosney, Nat'l Secy.

CATHOLIC HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA, (1915); 1327 South Grand Blvd., St. Louis; Alphonse M. Schwitalla, S.J., Pres.

Membership: Constituent institutional members, 607.

Purpose: To promote the medical, social, economic, and religious development of its members; and to further scientific efficiency and skill in hospital management, and the further education of the whole hospital personnel.

Publications: Hospital Progress, free to members, $3.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Chicago.

CATHOLIC MEDICAL MISSION BOARD (1926); 8 and 10 West 17th St., New York; Rev. Edward F. Garesche, S.J., Pres.

Purpose: To enlist support for the medical side of the missions, to gather and ship medical supplies and equipment to home and foreign mission fields, to encourage the development of hospital and dispensary work in mission lands, to help toward the support of doctors and nurses on the missions, and so forth.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

CATHOLIC RURAL LIFE CONFERENCE (1923); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Rev. Edwin O'Hara, LL.D., Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 560; constituent organizations, diocesan groups, 75; ecclesiastical seminaries, 10; religious communities, 62.

Purpose and Activities: To make available to Catholic rural parishes and organizations tested methods and facilities for improving their work. The Conference is sponsored by the Rural Life Bureau, Social Action Department, of the National Catholic Welfare Conference.

Publications: Catholic Rural Life (formerly St. Isidore's Plow), 9 issues yearly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Des Moines.

CENTRAL CONFERENCE OF AMERICAN RABBIS, COMMISSION ON SOCIAL JUSTICE (1918); Har Sinai Temple, Bolton and Wilson Sts., Baltimore; Rabbi Edward L. Israel, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, 20.

Purpose: To express the ethical ideas of Judaism in their application to modern social, industrial, and economic problems; to participate in social or economic controversies where ethical evaluations are necessary; and to interpret Judaism actively as well as theoretically in terms of modern issues.

Publications: Bulletin, published at irregular intervals. List of publications will be sent on request.

CENTRAL HOWARD ASSOCIATION (1901); 608 South Dearborn St., Chicago; F. Emory Lyon, Supt.

Membership: Individuals, about 1,500.

Purpose and Activities: To awaken public sentiment in behalf of released prisoners; to secure employment for them; to act as "first friend" to men on parole; to promote extension of the parole law, the indeterminate sentence, and the juvenile courts; and to encourage measures for the continued improvement of prison administration and the adoption of preventive legislation. The Association's primary activities cover eight states in the Middle West, but it receives and assists released prisoners from all states in the country.

Publications: Annual Yearbook will be sent on request.

CHAPLAIN'S ASSOCIATION; Rev. J. Geo. Carl, Secy.; 1609 N. Monroe St., Baltimore.

Purpose: To promote the discussion of common problems such as methods of making contact with inmates and work of rehabilitation. The Association is a section of the American Prison Association. (See its listing.)

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Toronto.

CHARACTER EDUCATION INSTITUTION (1922); 3770 McKinley St. (Chevy Chase), Washington, D. C.; Milton Fairchild, Chmn.

Membership: State superintendents and commissioners of education, 48; trustees, 9.

Purpose: To conduct scientific research on basic problems of character education in schools. The Institution operates on an endowment basis.

Publications: Research results, sent on request, include "Scientific Method," "Children's Morality Code," "Character Education Five-Point Plan," a "Character Graph," and a "Thinking Graph."

CHAUTAUQUA INSTITUTION (1874); Chautauqua, N. Y.; Dr. Arthur E. Bestor, Pres.

Departments: Administration and Program, Dr. Arthur E. Bestor; Summer School, Dr. Arthur E. Bestor; Press, L. H. Cary; Grounds and Buildings, George W. Rowland.

Activities: The Institution conducts a public program and summer schools of adult education at Chautauqua, N. Y., during July and August of each year, and a home reading course throughout the year.

Publications: The Chautauquan, annually; the Chautauqua Quarterlies; the Chautauquan Weekly; the Chautauquan Daily; and the Chautauquan Home Reading Course. List of publications will be sent on request.

CHILD EDUCATION FOUNDATION, INC. (1916); 66–68–70 East 92d St., New York, until October 1, 1930; after that, 535 East 84th St.; Anna Eva McLin, Dir.

Departments: Field Work, Zoe R. Bateman; Children's Home School, Helen Watson; Extension, Mabel E. C. Boyd.

Membership: Individuals, 143.

Purpose and Activities: To make contributions to self-instructive and cooperative plans of education which will encourage independence of thought and action and stimulate initiative and community interest. The Foundation carries on experimental work and tests the contributions of other experiments, both in method and curriculum, for childhood and parental education and the preparation of teachers.

Publications: Charts, records, pamphlets, and printed lectures for sale. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1930, in New York.

CHILD HEALTH DEMONSTRATION COMMITTEE. *See* COMMONWEALTH FUND.

CHILD HEALTH ORGANIZATION OF AMERICA. *See* AMERICAN CHILD HEALTH ASSOCIATION.

CHILD STUDY ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA (1888); 54 West 74th St., New York; Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg, Dir.

Departments: Asso. Dir., Mrs. Marion M. Miller; Study Groups, Mrs. Cecile Pilpel; Field Work, Margaret J. Quilliard.

Membership: Individuals, 2,116; constituent organizations, 155.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a better understanding between parent and child through a program of continuous parental education. Activities relate to the following matters: study groups, lectures and conferences, consultation service, library, speakers' bureau, training of leaders, publications, and summer play schools.

Publications: Child Study, 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New York.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA (1924); Room 902, 730 Fifth Ave., New York; Anna Tunick, Act'g Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 65.

Purpose: To secure home life for normal dependent children, wherever possible, in preference to institutions; to secure mothers' aid laws in states having none; to urge adequate appropriations for home aid; to strengthen existing mothers' aid laws and bring them to a higher standard of effectiveness; to promote proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out, and placing out of normal dependent children; and to aid in the enforcement of these laws.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA, INC. (1920); 130 East 22d St., New York; C. C. Carstens, Exec. Dir.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 140, in the following fields: organizations for children's aid service or for child protection; children's institutions; public departments which are supervisory, standardizing, and educational in character; and miscellaneous child welfare agencies not covered by these classifications.

Purpose: To improve organized service for physically, mentally, and socially handicapped children in the United States and Canada, and especially the work by its member organizations, through the following means: consultation service; studies of community programs or of separate organizations; regional conferences; interchange of service, especially between members; circulation of a loan library among members; a monthly bulletin and occasional publications; and general information service pertaining to this field of child welfare.

Publications: Monthly Bulletin, $1.00 a year; free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

CHILDREN'S BUREAU, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1912); Washington, D. C.; Grace Abbott, Chief.

Departments: Asst. to Chief, Katherine F. Lenroot; Maternity and Infant Hygiene, Dr. Blanche M. Haines; Child Hygiene, Dr. Martha M. Eliot; Social Service, Agnes K. Hanna; Industrial, Ellen Nathalie Matthews; Statistical, Dr. Elizabeth C. Tandy; Editorial, Mrs. Isabella Mott Hopkins.

Purpose and Activities: To investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of the people, especially on infant mortality, birth rates, orphanages, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment of children and legislation affecting them. Activities include the following: collection and analysis of facts about children, gathered at first-hand investigation and by library research; dissemination of these facts to the people of the country; cooperation with the states; and cooperation with public and private organizations.

Publications: Child Welfare News Summary, biweekly, free to selected organizations engaged in child welfare work. List of publications will be sent on request.

CHILDREN'S FOUNDATION (1921); Valparaiso, Ind.; Lewis E. Myers, President-Founder.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the study of child life and child well-being, and disseminate the knowledge so gained. The Foundation's only publication is The Child: His Nature and His Needs, issued in 1924. An extensive survey is now planned, for popular uses, of present day knowledge about children.

CHILDREN'S FUND OF MICHIGAN (1929); 52 Kirby Ave., West, Detroit, Mich.; William J. Norton, Secy.

Purpose: To promote the health, welfare, happiness, and development of the children of Michigan primarily and elsewhere in the world. It is the policy of the Fund to work through existing charitable agencies, with the possible exception of occasional health demonstrations and similar

activities to be administered. It is likely that particular emphasis will be laid upon the field of child health. Dependent and neglected children, however, will not be ignored, and recreation, education, and other services for children may be encouraged.

CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA (1925); 1805 Spruce St., Philadelphia; Dr. Howard Childs Carpenter, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 150.

Purpose: To promote the advancement of the interests of the children's hospitals in America, and the welfare of children coming under the influence of hospitals.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

CHRIST CHILD SOCIETY (1896); 324 Indiana Ave., Washington, D. C.; Martina Please, Office Exec.

Membership: Branches in 32 cities, with approximately 12,500 members.

Purpose: To carry on local work in Washington, D. C., and to assist Christ Child societies elsewhere. The activities of local societies include the following: settlement work; relief work; providing clothing for children of school age and infants; and maintaining baby clinics, day nurseries, maternity wards, and children's wards. Additional activities are carried on in Washington.

Publications: Biennial Year Book; Voice of the Christ Child, quarterly. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

CHURCH AND DRAMA LEAGUE OF AMERICA; organized in 1929 by combining the American Theatre Association, the Church and Drama Association, and the Drama League of America; 289 Fourth Ave., New York; George Reid Andrews, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Organization and Information Service, Sue Ann Wilson; Business, J. Stephenson Hill; Travel Bureau, Helen Ravitch.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 20,000; affiliated local centers, 35.

Purpose and Activities: To promote drama as a high form of art and as an educational, moral, and spiritual force. The organization conducts a reviewing service, which recommends to members meritorious plays on the commercial stage; it also furnishes information to dramatic clubs, little theaters, churches, colleges, and schools.

Publications: The Drama, 8 issues yearly, $3.00, or free to members; and the Church and Drama Bulletin, weekly during the theatrical season, free to members.

CHURCH LEAGUE FOR INDUSTRIAL DEMOCRACY (1919); 154 Nassau St., New York; W. B. Spofford, Exec. Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To bring together for prayer, study, and action those who seek to apply the principles of Christ in industrial society.

Publications: News Notes, quarterly. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in Philadelphia.

CHURCH MISSION OF HELP, INC., NATIONAL COUNCIL (1919); 27 West 25th St., New York; Mary S. Brisley, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 18 diocesan societies.

Purpose and Activities: To spread information regarding the Church Mission of Help societies of the Protestant Episcopal Church, to aid in the formation of new societies, to assist existing societies through field visits and in matters of personnel and training, and to provide publicity materials for national and diocesan use. The diocesan societies are social case work organizations which deal with problems of unadjusted girls, including the problems of unmarried mothers, in close cooperation with the other social agencies and institutions in the community.

Publications: Church Mission of Help Messenger, 3 issues yearly. List of pamphlets defining or illustrating the work will be sent on request.

Annual Institute was held in February, 1930, in Utica, N. Y.

CITIES CENSUS COMMITTEE, INC. (1924); Room 1408, 200 Fifth Ave., New York; Walter Laidlaw, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Members of an advisory council, 25 to 100, mainly representatives of cities outside of New York.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the enumeration, tabulation, interpretation, and publication of censuses of New York City and of other cities of its neighborhood of over 100,000 population, in terms of equalized acreage tracts or sanitary districts; and to assist in the adoption of the neighborhood tract system in all other large American cities.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA (1905); formerly National Assembly of Civil Service Commissioners; 923 East 60th St., Chicago; Fred Telford, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, about 10; constituent organizations, 60.

Purpose: To promote scientific research and administration in the public personnel field; to encourage the collection and distribution of information as to methods used; to formulate the fundamental principles of public personnel administration; and to promote the coordination of personnel research activities and furnish a forum for the interchange of thought and information.

Publications: News Bulletin, bimonthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in August, 1929, in Ottawa, Canada.

CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSION, UNITED STATES, Washington, D. C.

Purpose and Activities: To act as the recruiting agency for the federal civil service. Examinations are held for practically every occupation. Information concerning announced examinations may be obtained from the Board of United States Civil Service Examiners at the postoffice or customhouse in any city.

CLEVELAND FOUNDATION (1914); 438 Terminal Tower Bldg., Cleveland; Leyton E. Carter, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To assist charitable and educational institutions, whether supported by private donations or public taxation, to promote educational and scientific research to care for the sick, aged, or helpless, to improve living conditions or to provide recreation for all classes, and for such other charitable purposes as will best make for the mental, moral, and physical improvement of the inhabitants of the city of Cleveland, regardless of race, color, or creed. Surveys have been made in the fields of relief agencies, recreation, education, and criminal justice.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

COLORADO FOUNDATION FOR RESEARCH IN TUBERCULOSIS (1924); 1520 North Nevada Ave., Colorado Springs, Colo.; Dr. Edward N. Chapman, Secy. and Treas.

Purpose and Activities: To promote research which will add to the sum of knowledge of the disease and contribute to its prevention and cure. Results of the Foundation's studies have been published in medical journals. One series of studies relates to immunity in tuberculosis. A second line of research is concerned with the effects of light and radiation.

COLUMBIAN SQUIRES. *See* KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS.

COMMISSION ON INTERRACIAL COOPERATION, INC. (1919); 409 Palmer Bldg., Atlanta; Will W. Alexander, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Educational, R. B. Eleazer; Woman's Work, Mrs. Jessie Daniel Ames.

Membership: Individuals, 98, constituent organizations, about 600 local committees, and states interracial committees in 12 of the southern states.

Purpose and Activities: To promote and assist the work of state interracial committees in influencing legislatures, departments of public welfare and public health in extending to Negroes whatever services the state undertakes; in influencing local governments in a similar manner; and in extending programs through voluntary agencies for the betterment of general conditions among Negroes and for the improvement of race relations. News service is furnished to several hundred daily and weekly papers.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1930, in Atlanta.

COMMITTEE OF THE AMERICAN PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION FOR COMPLETING THE REGISTRATION AREA BEFORE 1930 (1926); Louis I. Dublin, Chmn., Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., New York.

Membership: Representatives of the American Public Health Association, with cooperating repre-

sentatives of the United States Chamber of Commerce, United States Children's Bureau, United States Public Health Service, and the United States Bureau of the Census.

Purpose: To promote better methods of registration of births and deaths in the states not already in the Birth Registration Area, or the Death Registration Area, in order that both areas may include all states by 1930.

COMMITTEE ON DESERTION. *See* NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON DESERTION.

COMMITTEE ON DRUG ADDICTIONS (1921); 61 Broadway, New York; Charles E. Terry, M.D., Exec.

Purpose and Activities: To stimulate and conduct scientific, clinical, and sociologic research on opium addiction, and engage in bibliographic work on same subject. Studies are made for the sake of eliciting facts surrounding opium addiction in the United States, particularly on the legal per capita use of opium and coca leaves in American communities; and findings are published from time to time.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

COMMITTEE ON GOVERNMENTAL LABOR STATISTICS OF THE AMERICAN STATISTICAL ASSOCIATION (1921); 130 East 22d St., New York; Bryce M. Stewart, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 23.

Purpose: To develop better standards and procedures, by research and conference, in several departments of governmental labor statistics; and to promote the adoption of such standards by the federal and state departments concerned. Included in the Committee's membership are representative producers and consumers of governmental labor statistics.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

COMMITTEE ON INSURANCE PROBLEMS IN DEPENDENT FAMILIES (1929); Caroline Bedford, Chmn.; 2221 Locust St., St. Louis.

Membership: Representatives of 5 national groups in the family welfare field.

Purpose and Activities: To study the problems of insurance in families under the care of family welfare agencies, and ways and means of meeting these problems.

COMMITTEE ON MATERNAL HEALTH (1923); Room 46, 2 East 103d St., New York; Louise Stevens Bryant, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 56.

Activities: The Committee carries on surveys and researches, and acts as a clearing house on such medical aspects of human fertility as birth control, sterilization, sterility, average sex life, and their anatomy and physiology. Legislative questions are taken up through medical societies. Medical education and lay education are assisted by aid with manuscripts and illustrations.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

COMMITTEE ON PUBLIC AID TO MOTHERS WITH DEPENDENT CHILDREN IN THEIR OWN HOMES. *See* MOTHERS' AID GROUP.

COMMITTEE ON PUBLICITY METHODS IN SOCIAL WORK. *See* SOCIAL WORK PUBLICITY COUNCIL.

COMMITTEE ON RECENT ECONOMIC CHANGES OF THE PRESIDENT'S CONFERENCE ON UNEMPLOYMENT (1928); Edward Eyre Hunt, Secy.; Department of Commerce, Washington, D. C.

Purpose: To make analyses of the post-war developments in American life, particularly those since the recovery from the depression of 1920–1921. The basic investigations for the Committee were made under the auspices of the National Bureau of Economic Research, Inc., with the assistance of a large number of governmental and private agencies. The report of the Committee was published in 1929 for the National Bureau.

COMMITTEE ON REGISTRATION OF SOCIAL STATISTICS. *See* REGISTRATION OF SOCIAL STATISTICS.

COMMITTEE ON RESEARCH IN SYPHILIS, INC. (1928); 50 East 42d St., New York; W. A. Harriman, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 25.

Purpose and Activities: To conduct medical and scientific research, especially (but not exclusively)

in and concerning syphilis and kindred diseases. The Committee is conducted as a non-profit institution. Grants have been made to 20 investigators, working in universities and scientific institutions in the United States and other countries.

Publications: A publication of the Committee will be sent on request.

COMMITTEE ON THE COSTS OF MEDICAL CARE (1927); 910 Seventeenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Harry H. Moore, Dir. of Study.

Membership: Individuals, 48.

Purpose: To study, over a five-year period, the economic aspects of the care and prevention of illness. It hopes to formulate a series of recommendations for the provision of adequate, scientific medical care to all at a reasonable cost.
Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

COMMITTEE ON TRANSPORTATION OF ALLIED NATIONAL AGENCIES (1921); Room 512, 25 West 43d St., New York; Bertha McCall, Secy.

Membership: Constituent national organizations, 5, as follows: Family Welfare Association of America, Child Welfare League of America, National Association of Travelers Aid Societies, National Council Church Mission of Help, and National Tuberculosis Association.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the signing of the Transportation Agreement relating to social case work for persons who seek assistance to reach some other part of the country. (*See* TRANSPORTATION OF CLIENTS IN SOCIAL WORK in Part I of this volume.) A subcommittee on decisions considers cases in which there is disagreement among signatory agencies in relation to transportation furnished—whether it was or was not in violation of the agreement.

Publications: Pamphlet, *The Transportation Agreement and Signers*, will be sent on request.

COMMONWEALTH FUND (1918); Fuller Bldg., 57th St. and Madison Ave., New York; Barry C. Smith, Gen. Dir.

Departments: Rural Hospitals, Henry J. Southmayd; Public Health, William J. French; Education, Edward Bliss Reed; Publications, Graham R. Taylor.

Activities: At the present time the Fund's activities are organized as follows: a Program in Mental Hygiene and Child Guidance; a Legal Research Committee; the Division of Education, administering fellowships awarded to British students for study in American universities; the Division of Rural Hospitals; the Division of Public Health, concerned with the development of rural health work in several selected states; and the Division of Publications. In addition, the Fund reserves each year a portion of its income for special grants for various social, scientific, and educational purposes.

Publications: The News Letter, quarterly. List of publications will be sent on request.

COMMUNITY SERVICE, INC. *See* NATIONAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION.

CONCILIATION SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1913); Washington, D. C.; Hugh L. Kerwin, Dir.

Purpose: To provide means for settling industrial disputes through the use of trained conciliators attached to the Department of Labor. The Department does not as a general policy intervene in labor disputes on its own initiative. It prefers to utilize its good offices on invitation of one of the parties concerned or the public directly affected.

CONFERENCE FOR PROGRESSIVE LABOR ACTION (1929); 104 Fifth Ave., New York; Israel Mufson, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, constituent organizations, affiliated local groups, labor parties, and labor colleges.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a militant, progressive, organized labor movement in all its aspects—trade union, political, educational, cooperative, and cultural. Membership is open to all who are in sympathy with this program.

Publications: Labor Age, official monthly organ, $2.00 a year to members, $2.50 a year to nonmembers. List of publications will be sent on request.

Organization meeting was held in February, 1929, in New York.

CONFERENCE OF SOUTHERN MOUNTAIN WORKERS (1913); Berea College, Berea, Ky.; Helen H. Dingman, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, about 150.

Purpose: To promote acquaintance and understanding among these engaged in work in the Southern Highland region, to face common problems together, and through exchange of ideas to further the best methods of work.

Publications: Mountain Life and Work, quarterly. $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Knoxville.

CONFERENCE OF STATE AND PROVINCIAL HEALTH AUTHORITIES OF NORTH AMERICA (1884); Old Capitol, St. Paul; A. J. Chesley, Secy.

Membership: State, territorial, and provincial health officers, 47.

Purpose and Activities: To discuss scientific problems in preventive medicine; to formulate uniform projects in health work; and to act as a clearing house of useful information relating to preventive medicine and public health. Work conducted through standing committees.

Publications: Proceedings annually.

CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS AND PRINCIPALS OF AMERICAN SCHOOLS FOR THE DEAF (about 1900); F. W. Booth, Pres.; Supt., School for Deaf, Omaha, Neb.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the progressive advancement of the education of the deaf in America.

Publications: American Annals of the Deaf, five issues yearly, $2.00 a year.

Biennial meeting was held in October, 1928, in Knoxville, Tenn.

CONVENTION OF AMERICAN INSTRUCTORS OF THE DEAF (1897); School for the Deaf, Frederick, Md.; Ignatius Bjorlee, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 500.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the education of the deaf on the broadest, most advanced, and practical lines.

Publications: American Annals of the Deaf, 5 issues yearly, $2.00 a year. Biennial reports of conventions free to members.

Biennial meeting was held in June, 1929, in Faribault, Minn.

COOPERATIVE EXTENSION SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE. *See* EXTENSION SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS (1908); 105 East 22d St., New York Florence E. Quinlan, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Migrants, Edith E. Lowry, Adela J. Ballard; Indians, Helen M. Brickman.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 24 national boards in Canada and United States.

Purpose and Activities: To unify the efforts of Protestant national women's home mission boards, societies, and committees by consultation and cooperation in action; and to represent Protestant church women in such national movements as they desire to promote interdenominationally.

Publications: The Missionary Review of the World, monthly, $2.50 a year, containing Woman's Home Mission Bulletin. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in Atlantic City.

DANIEL AND FLORENCE GUGGENHEIM FOUNDATION (1924); 120 Broadway, New York; F. A. Collins, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world by means of charitable and benevolent activities. The Foundation does not maintain a staff for research work, but some grants have been made for that purpose.

DAUGHTERS OF ISABELLA, NATIONAL CIRCLE (1897); 375 Whitney Ave., New Haven; Mary F. Riley, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 60,000; 23 state circles, 417 subordinate circles.

Purpose: To unite all Catholic women of proper age and standing in order to widen their circle of friendship, combine their resources and energies, and to be of mutual assistance in times of need; and to promote the religious and social status of their sex and aid their intellectual growth. As a means to these ends the subordinate circles sponsor community projects such as homes or camps or study clubs for girls.

Publications: The News Sheet, monthly to members.

DE HIRSCH (BARON) FUND. *See* BARON DE HIRSCH FUND.

DENTAL EDUCATIONAL COUNCIL OF AMERICA; Providence, R. I.; Albert L. Midgley, Secy.

DISABLED AMERICAN VETERANS OF THE WORLD WAR (1920); 2840 Melrose Ave., Cincinnati, Ohio; Vivian D. Corbly, Nat. Adj.

Departments: Legislative, Thomas Kirby; Rehabilitation, Ralph Chambers.

Membership: Individuals, 32,000; constituent organizations, 331.

Purpose and Activities: To advance the interests and work for the betterment of all wounded, injured, and disabled veterans of the World War; to cooperate to that end with the United States Veterans' Bureau and other agencies; and to stimulate a feeling of mutual devotion, helpfulness, and comradeship among all wounded, injured, or disabled veterans of the World War.

Publications: Disabled American Veterans Semi-Monthly, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Detroit.

DISABLED EMERGENCY OFFICERS OF THE WORLD WAR (1919); 407 Tower Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Lt. M. S. Stevenson, Nat'l Commander.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the permanent general welfare of veterans and their dependents. A service officer is constantly in touch with the Veterans' Bureau and other veteran organizations whose duty it is to see that claims with the Bureau are properly adjudicated.

DIVISION OF BUILDING AND HOUSING, BUREAU OF STANDARDS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF COMMERCE (1921); Washington, D. C.; James S. Taylor, Act'g Chief.

Departments: Building Codes, George N. Thompson; Building Practice, William K. MacMahon; City Planning and Zoning, Dan H. Wheeler; Construction Economics, John R. Riggleman.

Activities: Collects and makes available statistics and other information relating to building activity; prepares studies and reports on problems of the construction industry; prepares literature for the encouragement of economical home ownership; and through its advisory committees promotes uniformity in local building and plumbing codes, and in zoning and city planning laws.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

DRAMA LEAGUE OF AMERICA. *See* CHURCH AND DRAMA LEAGUE OF AMERICA.

DUKE ENDOWMENT, HOSPITAL AND ORPHAN SECTIONS (1924); Power Bldg., Charlotte, N. C.; W. S. Rankin, M.D., Dir.

Purpose and Activities: (1) To bring about an equalization of opportunity for the practice of modern medicine in the States of North Carolina and South Carolina, through assistance to community hospitals on the basis of their charity patients—such assistance being designed as a means for raising professional standards in medical service—and by aiding in the construction and equipment of new hospital buildings and in the construction of additions to old hospital buildings, contributing not more than half of the cost of such construction; and (2) to assist "properly operated" public or private agencies or institutions, of the states named, which care for orphans or half orphans. In order to carry out these purposes the Endowment has made and published annual reports as to costs, methods, and practices in the hospitals and child-caring institutions of the states named.

Other sections of the Endowment are concerned with Duke University and other educational institutions in the two states, and with rural Methodist churches in North Carolina.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

E. O. ROBINSON MOUNTAIN FUND; Frankfort, Ky.; Edward C. O'Rear.

Purpose: To help people of the mountain regions, especially in eastern Kentucky, attain better conditions of living and better understanding thereof.

ECONOMIC FOUNDATION (1923); 51 Madison Ave., New York; G. R. Stahl, Recording Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To further impartial investigation in the field of economic, social, and industrial science. The primary beneficiary of the Foundation is the National Bureau of Economic Research. See its listing.

EDWARD L. TRUDEAU FOUNDATION FOR RESEARCH AND TEACHING IN TUBERCULOSIS; Saranac Lake, N. Y.; Edward R. Baldwin, Dir.

Purpose: A memorial to the late Edward L. Trudeau, to perpetuate his name and to continue the scientific investigations that were a life-long interest to the American pioneer in tuberculosis research.

Publications: The studies are published annually with the medical reports of the Trudeau Sanatorium.

ELIZABETH McCORMICK MEMORIAL FUND (1908); 848 North Dearborn St., Chicago; Mary E. Murphy, Dir.

Departments: Research; Nutrition; Health Education; Preschool; Education and Publicity; and Library.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the betterment of conditions of child life in the United States. Projects undertaken by the Fund are the continuous health supervision of families; research relating to mental and physical growth; and methods of parent education, health education in public schools, nursery schools, nutrition classes, and hospitals. A child welfare library is maintained.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

EMIL AND FANNIE WEDELES FUND FOR THE STUDY AND INVESTIGATION OF DISEASES OF THE HEART AND CIRCULATION (1928); Michael Reese Hospital, Chicago; Dr. Louis N. Katz, Dir. of Cardiovascular Research.

Purpose: To promote studies of the diseases of heart and circulation from all possible angles, including the clinical, experimental, social, economic, and statistical points of view.

EMPLOYMENT SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1907); 1800 D St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Francis I. Jones, Dir. Gen.

Purpose: To foster, promote, and develop the welfare of the wage-earners of the United States, including juniors legally employed; to improve their working conditions; to advance their opportunities for profitable employment by regularly collecting, furnishing, and publishing employment information as to opportunities for employment, and by maintaining a system of clearing labor between the several states; and to cooperate with and coordinate the public employment offices throughout the country.

Publications: Industrial Employment Information Bulletin, monthly; Report of Activities of Cooperating States and Municipal Employment Services, monthly; Report of Farm Labor Division, yearly; Industrial, Agricultural, and General Employment Prospects, yearly; Bulletin, Harvesting in the Big Wheat Belt, yearly; Directory of Public Employment offices, semi-annually. List of publications will be sent on request.

EUGENICS COMMITTEE OF THE UNITED STATES. *See* AMERICAN EUGENICS SOCIETY, INC.

EXTENSION SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE (1914); Washington, D. C.; C. W. Warburton, Dir.

Purpose: To take to rural people the results of the research of the United States Department of Agriculture and the state experiment stations in agriculture and home economics; to aid farmers in obtaining better returns from their farms; and to make rural America a better and more satisfactory place to live in. The service is a cooperative enterprise conducted by the United States Department of Agriculture and the state colleges of agriculture in each of the states and Hawaii, and in the counties.

Publications: Bulletins and circulars on Extension Work for sale or free distribution. List of publications will be sent on request.

FAMILY WELFARE ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA (1911); prior to 1930 name was American Association for Organizing Family Social Work; 130 East 22d St., New York; Linton B. Swift, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Field Work, Francis H. McLean; Publications, Margaret E. Rich; Personnel, Ruth Hill; Extension, Victor R. Manning.

Membership: Individuals, 70; constituent local agencies, 234, of which 226 are nonsectarian, community-wide private societies and 8 are local public welfare agencies.

Purpose: To promote the development of family social work and of wholesome family life in the United States and Canada through the following means: field work with family welfare agencies, development of qualified personnel in family case work, research in family welfare and related prob-

lems, public interpretation of the family welfare movement, and publications for professional social case workers and the layman.

Publications: The Family, 10 issues yearly, $1.50 and $3.00 a year; the News Letter, 10 issues yearly, 50 cents a year or free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

FEDERAL AGENCIES. *See* UNITED STATES BUREAUS, DEPARTMENTS, ETC.

FEDERAL BOARD FOR VOCATIONAL EDUCATION (1917); 200 New Jersey Ave., Washington, D. C.; Dr. J. C. Wright, Dir.

Departments: Agricultural Education, Dr. C. H. Lane; Trade and Industrial Education, Frank Cushman; Home Economics Education, Dr. Adelaide S. Baylor; Commercial Education, Earl W. Barnhart; Vocational Rehabilitation, John Aubel Kratz.

Purpose: To cooperate with states and territories in the promotion of vocational education and vocational rehabilitation; to conduct research in those fields; and to provide for the rehabilitation of disabled residents in the District of Columbia.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA (1908); 105 East 22d St., New York; Charles S. Macfarland, John M. Moore, and Samuel McCrea Cavert, Gen. Secys.

Departments: Research, F. Ernest Johnson; Social Service Commission, Worth M. Tippy; Race Relations, George E. Haynes; International Justice and Goodwill, Sidney L. Gulick.

Membership: Constituent national organizations, 27 Protestant denominations and communions.

Purpose: To secure effective cooperation among the Protestant churches (in local, state, and national areas), and to develop a spirit of larger unity; to serve as a center through which the churches can deal unitedly with social problems of common concern.

Publications: Federal Council Bulletin, monthly, $1.00 a year; Information Service, weekly, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

FEDERAL MOTION PICTURE COUNCIL IN AMERICA, INC. (1925); 206 Pennsylvania Ave., Washington, D. C., and 481 Bedford Ave., Brooklyn, N. Y.; Rev. Wm. Sheafe Chase, D. D., Gen'l Secy.

Departments: Field Work, Maude M. Aldrich.

Membership: Individuals, directors, 15; constituent organizations, approximately 15.

Purpose: To conduct investigations and research; to compile data regarding motion pictures, particularly with regard to their moral effects; to disseminate the information thus obtained; and to endeavor to bring about united and effective effort to the end that only wholesome motion pictures shall be produced and shown.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

FEDERATED SOCIETIES ON PLANNING AND PARKS (1925); 901 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Harlean James, Secy.

Membership: Constituent national organizations, 5, as follows: American Civic Association; American Institute of Park Executives; American Park Society; National Conference on State Parks; National Conference on City Planning.

Purpose: To furnish information and advice on the following: national parks and monuments; recreation areas of national forests and other federal lands; national planning projects; protection and development of the federal city; state parks, forests, and other state reservations; state planning and zoning enabling acts; special planning for state capitals; comprehensive city and regional planning; municipal and county park systems; restriction of nuisances; and municipal and regional zoning regulations.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in Washington, D. C.

FIRST INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS ON MENTAL HYGIENE (1928); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Clifford W. Beers, Secy. Gen., John R. Shillady, Admin. Secy.

Purpose: To promote discussion of outstanding individual and social problems growing out of nervous and mental disease and mental defect and mental and emotional maladjustments of individuals to their personal and social environments; also to promote agreement as to objectives in the organized mental hygiene movement; and to effect a permanent international organization of agencies in that field.

Publications: Proceedings, 1930, $3.50, or free to members.

FLEET RESERVE ASSOCIATION; 804 Earle Theatre Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Edward J. McGeogh, Nat'l Secy.

FLORENCE CRITTENTON MISSION. *See* NATIONAL FLORENCE CRITTENTON MISSION.

FOREIGN LANGUAGE INFORMATION SERVICE (1918); 222 Fourth Ave., New York; Read Lewis, Dir.

Departments: Foreign Language Press, Mark Villchur; Individual and Organization Service, Marian Schibsby; Foreign Language Organizations, Thomas L. Cotton.

Membership: Individuals, 1,652.

Purpose and Activities: To assist and assimilate the immigrant, and to forward tolerance and better understanding among the people of the United States. The Service sends articles about American life and institutions to the foreign language press; it assists foreign language organizations to develop adult education activities and contacts with other American agencies; it advises individual immigrants, supplies local agencies with reliable information on immigration and naturalization questions; and interprets the immigrant to America.

Publications: The Interpreter, 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year; Fraternity, 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year; Interpreter Releases, weekly, $10.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

FOREST SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF AGRICULTURE (1905); 930 F St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Robert Y. Stuart, Forester.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the conservation and development of the nation's forests; and to secure the best use of their resources, timber, water, forage, recreational opportunities, and so forth, for the permanent good of the whole people. The 150 national forests are administered in the public interest, and the protection and reforestation of private forest lands is promoted in cooperation with state and private agencies.

Publications: The Forest Worker, 6 issues yearly, 25 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

FOUNDATION FOR POSITIVE HEALTH (organized, 1919, as the Women's Foundation for Health and name changed in 1928); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Essie V. Hathaway, Dir. of Publications and Schedules.

Purpose and Activities: To create a desire for positive health and to further ways and means for obtaining and maintaining it. Lecture courses are arranged for organizations, health educational literature distributed, and cooperation maintained with national volunteer health organizations through membership in the National Health Council.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

GARLAND FUND. *See* AMERICAN FUND FOR PUBLIC SERVICE.

GENERAL EDUCATION BOARD (1902); 61 Broadway, New York; W. W. Brierley, Secy.

Divisions: Industrial Art, Charles R. Richards; Natural Sciences, Herman A. Spoehr; Social Sciences, Edmund E. Day; College Education, David H. Stephens; Humanities, Edward Capps.

Purpose and Activities: To promote education within the United States without distinction of race, sex, or color. In the field of public education the Board will cooperate with state departments of education in the South in the support of (a) certain administrative divisions during the period of establishment and demonstration, and (b) occasional conferences of southern educational leaders; will assist state universities and state colleges in improving practice-teaching facilities; and will grant fellowships for further training for important positions in the field of public education. The Board's activities include also programs of development in the science of education, research in education, and the processes of education. The Board will cooperate also in a general plan of proposed activities in Negro education. Its program with respect to educational work on the university level will be undertaken jointly with the Rockefeller Foundation. (See its listing.) Two joint divisions have been established, those in the natural sciences and in the humanities. For the proposed program in the latter field see the listing of the Rockefeller Foundation.

GENERAL FEDERATION OF WOMEN'S CLUBS; 1734 N St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. John F. Sippel, Pres.

Membership: State Federations of Women's Clubs, 48, and many local clubs.

Activities: Among the divisions and committees of the General Federation are those which deal with the following subjects: Americanization and citizenship, American home, motion pictures, adult education, community service, recreation and right use of leisure, child welfare, public health, Indian welfare, and problems of industry.

Publications: General Federation News, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Biennial meeting was held in June, 1930, in Denver.

GENETIC FOUNDATION; Equitable Bldg., Denver; Henry W. Toll, Secy.

Activities: The Foundation is concerned with the extension of educational and research work concerning the principles of heredity, especially as applied to the human race. It has arranged lecture courses, but has no publications. It is considering establishing certain prizes for theses in this field written by university students.

GIRL GUIDES AND GIRL SCOUTS, WORLD BUREAU (1919); 112 Beaufort St., Chelsea, London, S. W. 3; Dame Katharine Furse, Dir.

Membership: Constituent national organizations, 33, in 28 countries.

Purpose: Through cooperation to promote unity of purpose and common understanding in the fundamental principles of Girl Guiding and Girl Scouting, and to encourage friendship between the girls of all nations.

Publications: Council Fire, quarterly, one shilling sixpence a year.

GIRL SCOUTS, INC. (1915); 670 Lexington Ave., New York; Josephine Schain, Nat'l Dir.

Departments: Program, Emma H. Gunther; Field Work, Sibyl Gordon Newell; Personnel, Agnes B. Leahy; Business, S. M. MacDowell; Controller, E. F. Eldwood; Editorial, S. E. McKeown; Public Relations, Schuyler B. Patterson.

Membership: Individuals, 205,834; constituent local organizations, 10,375.

Purpose and Activities: To help girls realize the ideals of womanhood, as a preparation for their responsibilities in the home and in service to the community. Methods of training are emphasized which develop initiative, self-control, resourcefulness, and service to others, and, in general, the qualities of character of most worth in adult life. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: American Girl Magazine monthly, $1.50 a year; Girl Scout Leader monthly, 50 cents a year or free to all Girl Scout leaders. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New Orleans.

GIRLS' FRIENDLY SOCIETY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA (1877); 386 Fourth Ave., New York; Florence Lukens Newbold, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Program, Ruth B. Cordins; Publications, Sarah Morrison; Finance, Anne Stephens; Associate Exec. Secy., Harriet A. Dunn.

Membership: Individuals, 45,477; constituent organizations, 1,115 branches in 57 dioceses.

Purpose: To develop character and provide friendship for girls of every age, race, and creed, through a flexible program of recreation, service, work, and worship adapted to community and group needs. The organization is sponsored by the Episcopal Church. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS in Part I.

Publications: The Record, 9 issues yearly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Kansas City, Mo.

GIRLS' PROTECTIVE COUNCIL (1925); 138 East 19th St., New York; Ethel N. Cherry, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 100.

Purpose: To promote the formulation and interchange of progressive methods of protective work, the raising of standards, and the strengthening and increasing effectiveness of protective organizations. The Council meetings are held at the time of the National Conference of Social Work, of which it is an associate group.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

GIRLS' SERVICE LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1908); 138 East 19th St., New York; Stella A. Miner, Secy. and Ex. Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 1,299.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the mental, moral, physical, social, and spiritual welfare of youth in America; to aid in the organization of associations for the better understanding and guidance of individuals and the improvement of conditions dangerous to youth; to encourage the establishment of homes and clubs for girls who need temporary care or better adjustment.

Publications: Girls Service League Bulletin, quarterly, free; Directory of Protective Agencies, annual, free.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in New York.

GOLDEN RULE FOUNDATION (1929); 1 Madison Ave., New York; Charles V. Vickrey, Exec. Vice-Pres.

Purpose: To promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world. It is within the purpose of the Foundation to use as means to that end the investigation of needs, agencies, and methods of philanthropy; publication of its findings; appropriations in aid of institutions, activities, and agencies already established; and encouragement, establishment, and development of new work where needed.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

GOODWILL INDUSTRIES. *See* BUREAU OF GOODWILL INDUSTRIES.

GOVERNMENTAL RESEARCH ASSOCIATION (1915); name changed in 1928 from Governmental Research Conference; 261 Broadway, New York; Russell Forbes, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 105; constituent organizations, 51.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for persons engaged in governmental research a means of exchanging ideas and experiences, undertaking cooperative studies and experiences, and developing professional standards.

Publications: Two pamphlets describing the advantages and results of governmental research will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Chicago.

GUGGENHEIM (DANIEL AND FLORENCE) FOUNDATION. *See* DANIEL AND FLORENCE GUGGENHEIM FOUNDATION.

GUGGENHEIM (JOHN SIMON) MEMORIAL FOUNDATION. *See* JOHN SIMON GUGGENHEIM MEMORIAL FOUNDATION.

GUGGENHEIM (MURRY AND LEONIE) FOUNDATION. *See* MURRY AND LEONIE GUGGENHEIM FOUNDATION.

HARMON ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF NURSING, INC. (1926); 522 Fifth Ave., New York; James I. Coddington, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 409 (nurses' organizations in each state are represented on the board of trustees through the three national nurses' organizations).

Purpose and Activities: To promote cooperative movements in the interest of registered nurses; to promote interest in their making provision for the future by such measures as shall be advisable; and to do all other things necessary or advisable to effectuate these objects, subject to existing law, and without pecuniary profit. The activities of the Association are confined to the single purpose of assisting hospital nurses and other registered nurses to make permanent financial provision for their old age and years of retirement.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

HARMON FOUNDATION, INC. (1922); 140 Nassau St., New York; Mary Beattie Brady, Dir.

Divisions: Student Loans; Playgrounds; Awards for Constructive and Creative Achievement; and Social Research and Experimentation.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind throughout the United States by assisting others to help themselves and engaging in speculative humanitarian enterprises which give promise of rendering a constructive contribution to public well-being.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

HEBREW SHELTERING AND IMMIGRANT AID SOCIETY (1911); 425–437 Lafayette St., New York; Isaac L. Asofsky, Gen. Mgr.

Departments: Citizenship, A. L. Shluger; Food and Shelter, Rabbi I. Roth; Immigration, N. Oken; Field Work, May Paley.

Purpose and Activities: To facilitate lawful entry of Jewish immigrants in the United States and in

other immigration countries; to provide them with temporary shelter, food, and other aid as may be found necessary; to guide them to their destinations; to help them obtain employment; and to maintain offices abroad for the protection of those desiring to emigrate.

Annual meeting was held in March, 1930, in New York.

HI-Y CLUBS. *See* YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS, NATIONAL COUNCIL.

HOFHEIMER (NATHAN) FOUNDATION. *See* NATHAN HOFHEIMER FOUNDATION.

HOME MISSIONS COUNCIL (1918); Room 610, 105 East 22d St., New York; Rev. William R. King, D.D., Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 10; constituent organizations, 37 home mission and church extension boards of 28 denominations.

Purpose: To provide a clearing house for Protestant home missions and church extension boards and societies, and to promote fellowship, conference, and cooperation among these groups.

Publications: Annual Report, free to secretaries of groups. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in Atlantic City.

HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, METHODIST EPISCOPAL CHURCH, SOUTH (1926); 406 Wesley Memorial Bldg., Cor. Auburn and Ivy Sts., Atlanta; Dr. Henry Hedden.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 12 hospitals.

Purpose and Activities: To promote cooperation between the hospital forces and the workers in the annual conferences of the Church who are interested in the hospital movement.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in New Orleans.

HOSPITAL LIBRARY AND SERVICE BUREAU OF THE AMERICAN HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION. *See* AMERICAN HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION.

HUMAN BETTERMENT FOUNDATION; Suite 625, Pacific Southwest Bldg., Pasadena, Calif.; Paul Popenoe, Secy.

Purpose: The organization is not designed to take up original scientific research work, but rather to investigate the results and possibilities for human betterment by a safe, conservative application of the discoveries made by science, and to give this information to the public. Its first major problem is to take over the investigation of the possibilities of race betterment by eugenic sterilization, heretofore personally directed by E. S. Gosney, of Pasadena, Calif., and to make public the results.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

HYSLOP (JAMES H.) FOUNDATION. *See* JAMES H. HYSLOP FOUNDATION.

ILLINOIS INSTITUTE FOR JUVENILE RESEARCH, Illinois State Department of Public Welfare (1917); 907 South Lincoln St., Chicago; Paul L. Schroeder, M.D., Dir.

Purpose and Activities: The Institute represents the preventive activities of the Division of the Criminologist of the Illinois State Department of Public Welfare. Originally (1909) supported by private funds, and later (1914) a part of the Cook County Juvenile Court, it has since 1917 been part of the state service. It operates as a behavior problem clinic, serving public and private agencies in Chicago and throughout Illinois. It gives training to workers in the clinic field, makes surveys, and gives other limited services to other state communities on request. In its researches it is attempting to study the cause of crime and juvenile delinquency and methods of diagnosing and treating situations which produce it.

Publications: Annual report will be sent on request.

IMMIGRANTS' PROTECTIVE LEAGUE; 824 South Halstead St., Chicago; Mrs. Kenneth S. Rich, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 400.

Purpose and Activities: To apply the civic, social and legal resources of Chicago to the needs of foreigners in that city, to protect them from exploitation, to cooperate with the federal, state, and local authorities and with similar organizations in other localities, and to protect the right of asylum in all proper cases. In pursuance of this purpose many of the activities of the League have become nation-wide.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

INDIAN OFFICE. *See* BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR.

INDIAN RIGHTS ASSOCIATION (1882); 995 Drexel Bldg., Philadelphia; Matthew K. Sniffen, Secy.

Departments: Washington Agency, S. M. Brosius, Representative, Washington Loan and Trust Building, Washington, D. C.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,200.

Purpose: To promote the spiritual, moral and material welfare of the Indians of the United States, and the protection of their legal rights, particularly the rights already guaranteed to them by treaty and statutes of the United States; and to secure such further rights as circumstances may justify.

Publications: Indian Truth, monthly, free to members. Such publications as are available will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1929, in Philadelphia.

INDUSTRIAL HEALTH CONSERVANCY LABORATORIES (1920); 34 West 7th St., Cincinnati; Mrs. Dorothy K. Minster, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Research, Carey P. McCord, M.D.; Service, Dorothy K. Minster.

Purpose and Activities: To carry on research in the field of industrial medicine and industrial hygiene, particularly in relation to occupational diseases. Advice is given on a private basis to trades associations, labor organizations, medical societies, compensation boards, and others.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS COUNSELORS, INC. (1926); Room 2320, 165 Broadway, New York; Arthur H. Young, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote research in the general field of human relations in industry, and to carry on a consulting service in that field, principally for industrial corporations. The former activity is entirely underwritten by John D. Rockefeller, Jr., and the latter is administered on a cost basis. In addition to conducting investigations, the research department maintains an information service concerning activities in the field of industrial relations and personnel administration. The subjects studied include among others employe stock ownership, profit-sharing, vacations with pay for industrial workers, unemployment compensation, and industrial pensions.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

INQUIRY (1922); 129 East 52d St., New York; Mrs. Abel J. Gregg, Exec. Secy.

Purpose: To promote the improvement of human relations through the development of social techniques based on modern knowledge. The organization seeks, in particular, to aid in working out policies and programs that develop democratic and harmonious procedures for the adjustment of conflict.

Publications: The Inquiry, 7 or 8 issues yearly. Voluntary contributions from $1.00 up are requested to pay printing costs. List of publications will be sent on request.

INSTITUTE FOR CHILD GUIDANCE (1927); 145 East 57th St., New York; Lawson G. Lowrey, M.D., Dir.

Departments: Staff, David M. Levy, M.D.; Social Service, Christine C. Robb.

Purpose and Activities: To carry on the study and treatment of behavior and personality problems in children, the training of psychiatrists and psychologists for child-guidance clinic work, and the training of psychiatric social workers.

INSTITUTE FOR GOVERNMENT RESEARCH. *See* BROOKINGS INSTITUTION.

INSTITUTE FOR JUVENILE RESEARCH. *See* ILLINOIS INSTITUTE FOR JUVENILE RESEARCH.

INSTITUTE FOR SOCIAL WORK EXECUTIVES (1927); 803½ East Main St., Richmond, Va.; Arthur A. Guild, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals in attendance at the Conference in 1929, 73.

Purpose: To provide an annual conference of one week, under the sponsorship of the Association of Community Chests and Councils, at which social

work executives, particularly in the South, may meet for intensive discussion of their common problems.

Publication: Proceedings.

Conference was held in August, 1929, in Blue Ridge, N. C.

INSTITUTE FOR THE CRIPPLED AND DISABLED (1917); name changed in 1928 from the Institute for Crippled and Disabled Men; 245 East 23d St., New York; John Culbert Faries, Ph.D., Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To study the economic consequences of physical disability; to discover suitable means to enable the crippled to earn their living; and to advise individuals and organizations seeking help for handicapped persons. The Institute gives free vocational training to persons with a physical handicap and manufactures artificial limbs and braces and sells them at cost.

Publications: Thumbs Up, 5 issues yearly, free to all contributors and to others on request. Booklets on the work of the Institute will be sent on request.

INSTITUTE OF CHARACTER RESEARCH (1923); University of Iowa, Iowa City; Edwin D. Starbuck, Dir.

Purpose: To carry on investigations in the whole field of human character, including the elements of personality, character training, bodily and mental processes conditioning character development, the curriculum with reference to character values, and the character outcomes of various methods in education.

Publications: University of Iowa Studies in Character, one volume of four numbers, yearly; $1.00 a number. List of publications will be sent on request.

INSTITUTE OF ECONOMICS. *See* BROOKINGS INSTITUTION.

INSTITUTE OF HUMAN RELATIONS, YALE UNIVERSITY (1929); Yale University, New Haven; M. A. May, Secy. of the Executive Committee.

Purpose: To carry on cooperative research in all fields concerned with human behavior in its social milieu.

INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL AND RELIGIOUS RESEARCH (1921); Room 1601, 230 Park Ave., New York; Galen M. Fisher, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Controller, Trevor Bowen; Standards, C. Luther Fry; Editorial, Stanley Went.

Membership: Individuals, 7, who constitute the Board of Directors.

Purpose: To apply scientific methods to the study of socio-religious phenomena.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

INTER-CITY CONFERENCE ON ILLEGITIMACY; 520 Federal Reserve Bank Bldg., Cleveland; Grace Redding, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, from 50 to 100; constituent organizations, 8.

Purpose: To promote a study of the problems of illegitimacy. The Conference seeks to bring together workers in this field, make comparisons of the various methods of dealing with the unmarried mother and her child, and to gain knowledge in respect to improved methods of handling practical situations.

Publications: A page in the Bulletin of the Child Welfare League of America.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in San Francisco.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR SOCIAL PROGRESS (1925); created by amalgamating three formerly allied associations, the International Association for Labor Legislation, International Association on Unemployment, and International Social Insurance Committee; 60 Avenue de Breteuil, VII, Paris, France; Adeodat Boissard, Gen. Secy.

Purpose: To conduct investigations of social problems and to arrange conferences to discuss such problems. The American Association for Labor Legislation is the American section of the International Association.

Publications: L'Avenir du Travail, quarterly, 25 French francs a year.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Zurich, Switzerland.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY AND IMPROVEMENT OF HUMAN RELATIONS AND CONDITIONS IN INDUSTRY. *See* INTERNATIONAL INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS ASSOCIATION.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CHIEFS OF POLICE (1894); Police Headquarters, Wilmington, Del.; George Black, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote an annual convention of members. Since 1927 the Association has had a committee on Uniform Crime Records under whose auspices in cooperation with the National Institute of Public Administration several studies have been published.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF DAILY VACATION BIBLE SCHOOLS (1911); name changed in 1917 from Daily Vacation Bible School Association; 805 Pershing Square Bldg., New York; Myron C. Settle, Educa'l Dir.

Membership: Individuals, about 2,000.

Purpose: To stimulate the growth and development of vacation church schools (daily vacation Bible schools); to afford educational leadership for Protestant Christian denominations in the promotion and development of such schools; to provide needed literature for purposes of promotion and improvement; and to coordinate the religious forces in the field.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New York.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL LABOR OFFICIALS. *See* ASSOCIATION OF GOVERNMENTAL OFFICIALS IN INDUSTRY.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENT BOARDS AND COMMISSIONS (1914); United States Bureau of Labor Statistics, Washington, D. C.; Ethelbert Stewart, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 5; constituent organizations, 42. Of the latter 3 are federal agencies, 35 are state and provincial agencies, 2 are companies, and 2 are safety organizations.

Purpose: To bring together officials who administer workmen's compensation laws to consider the following: standardized methods for preventing accidents; medical, surgical, and hospital treatment for injured workers; means for reeducation of injured workmen and their restoration to industry; methods of computing industrial accident and sickness insurance costs; practices in administering compensation laws; extensions and improvements in workmen's compensation legislation; reports and tabulations of industrial accidents and illness.

Publications: Proceedings, published annually by the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics. List of pamphlets for distribution will be sent on request as long as the supply lasts.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Buffalo.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF POLICEWOMEN (1919); 630 Louisiana Ave., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Mina C. Van Winkle, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, about 600.

Purpose: To fix standards for the service of policewomen, to secure proper training, to inspire the appointment of qualified policewomen, to encourage the establishment of women's bureaus in police departments, to work for the general improvement of the service, and to promote such service internationally.

Publications: Bulletin (included in $2.00 membership), 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

INTERNATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT SERVICES (1913); City Hall, Cleveland; B. C. Seiple, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 150.

Purpose: To advance the ideals, progress, and policies of the public employment service through cooperation and discussion.

Publications: Annual Report. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Philadelphia.

INTERNATIONAL BOYS' WORK COUNCIL (1925); 244 William St., New York; William Lewis Butcher, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 1,000; constituent organizations, 20 national boys' work groups, also local boys' work groups.

Purpose and Activities: To act as a general clearing house for all groups and organizations interested in boys and boys' work; to advise and assist

in the organization of boys' work councils; and to bring together annually representative workers for boys, representatives of business men's organizations, and all those interested in boys and their problems.

Publications; List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Toronto.

INTERNATIONAL CATHOLIC FEDERATION OF NURSES (1925); formerly International Catholic Guild of Nurses; Suite 130, Auditorium Hotel, Chicago; Mae E. Coloton, R.N., Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 1,500; constituent organizations, 25.

Purpose: To contribute to the strengthening and elevation of the nursing profession; to unite its members for the increase of their personal excellence of character and service, and the expression of Catholic charity in their services to others; to hold an annual convention, conduct a monthly magazine, maintain a general headquarters; and to promote such other activities as shall best secure these ends.

Publications: The Courier, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Montreal.

INTERNATIONAL CITY MANAGERS' ASSOCIATION (1914); 923 East 60th St., Chicago; Clarence E. Ridley, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 243 city managers; 177 subscribing members; and 4 honorary members.

Purpose and Activities: To aid in the improvement of local government administration by the following means: encouraging city managers to assume a professional attitude; maintaining representation on joint committees dealing with such matters as measurement standards in government, municipal reporting, uniform crime records, and other subjects; offering a limited consulting service; maintaining a standing committee on research; and conducting annual conventions.

Publications: Public Management, monthly, $4.00 a year; Monthly News Letter and bi-weekly bulletin free to members; and a city manager yearbook, annually (containing convention proceedings). List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Fort Worth, Tex.

INTERNATIONAL COMMITTEE OF YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS. *See* YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES, NATIONAL COUNCIL.

INTERNATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK (1926); 2 Ave. Velasquez, Paris, 8e, Dr. Alice Masarykova, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, 2,500; constituent national committees, 32.

Purpose: To bring social workers together from every country in order to pool their experience and help toward the development and recognition of social work in its various phases throughout the world.

Publications: Proceedings of Conference of 1928, in English, $4.00.

Quadrennial meeting was held in 1928 in Paris.

INTERNATIONAL COUNCIL FOR THE EDUCATION OF EXCEPTIONAL CHILDREN (1923); 485 Chesterfield Ave., W., Ferndale, Mich.; Eleanor A. Gray, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,300.

Purpose: To carry on constructive study of the educational needs of exceptional children, both gifted and handicapped; to promote opportunities for the education of such children; to unite persons interested in that work; and to promote professional standards for teachers in this field.

Publications: News Letter, published semi-annually, free to members. List of other publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in Detroit.

INTERNATIONAL DENTAL HEALTH FOUNDATION FOR CHILDREN, INC. (1920); 130 East End Ave., New York; Dr. Louise C. Ball, Hon. Pres.

Purpose and Activities: To teach dental health and nutrition in the home, through motion-picture films, posters, charts, and educational bulletins; and to cooperate to those ends with the teaching, medical, dental, and nursing professions, mission schools, and all public health agencies. All material is presented in popular language for both children and adults and is translated into foreign

languages. The organization is entirely non-commercial.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in New York.

INTERNATIONAL EDUCATIONAL CINEMATOGRAPHIC INSTITUTE (1928); Villa Mediœvale Torlonia, Via Lazzaro Spallanzani, Rome, Italy; Dr. Luciano de Feo, Dir.

Membership: A governing body appointed by the Council of the League of Nations, consisting of a president and 14 members of different nationalities, including seven members of the League's Committee on Intellectual Cooperation and subcommittees and two members of the Child Welfare Committee.

Purpose: To emphasize the importance of the cinematograph as an aid to science, literature, art, and teaching in all its stages, as an instrument of social education, and as a means of promoting international understanding and therefore peace.

Publications: International Review of Educational Cinematography, monthly.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF CATHOLIC ALUMNÆ (1914); The Catholic University of America, Washington, D. C.; Mary B. Finan, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 60,000; state chapters, 49.

Purpose: To bring together the alumnæ associations of Catholic high schools, colleges, and universities for the purpose of upholding the ideals of Catholic womanhood; and to extend Catholic education, literature, and social service.

Publications: The Quarterly Bulletin of the International Federation of Catholic Alumnæ, $1.00 a year.

Biennial meeting was held in August, 1928, at Niagara Falls.

INTERNATIONAL FEDERATION OF HOME AND SCHOOL (1927); Northwest School, 1421 Race St., Philadelphia, Pa.; Anna B. Pratt, Secy.

Membership: Constituent organizations, national, 9, city, 2.

Purpose: To bring together for conference and cooperation all agencies which concern themselves with the care and training of children in home, school, and community, and with the education of adults to meet these responsibilities; and to make effective the principles and recommendations of the Federation.

Publications: News Releases and World Activity Sheets, monthly.

Annual meeting in 1929 was held in Geneva, Switzerland.

INTERNATIONAL HEALTH BOARD. *See* ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION.

INTERNATIONAL HOSPITAL COMMITTEE (1929); 2 East 103d St., New York; E. H. L. Corwin, Ph.D., Secy. Gen.

Membership: Individuals, 39.

Purpose: To formulate plans for the organization of a permanent international hospital association; to encourage the formation of national or regional hospital associations where they do not now exist, and to invite such associations to affiliate.

Publications: Occasional bulletins.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

INTERNATIONAL INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS ASSOCIATION (1925); prior to 1928, International Association for the Study and Improvement of Human Relations and Conditions in Industry; Mary van Kleeck, Vice-Pres. and American representative, 130 East 22d St., New York.

Purpose and Activities: To study and promote satisfactory human relations in industry. A triennial congress is held, with interim discussion meetings or summer schools. The results of these conferences are published. A distinctive feature is the inclusion in membership of representatives of all sections of the industrial community, and of workers in social research in industry.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Schloss Elmau, Bavaria, Germany.

INTERNATIONAL KINDERGARTEN UNION (1892); 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Margaret Cook Holmes, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 4,000; constituent organizations, local, 200, state, 30.

Purpose: To gather and disseminate knowledge of the kindergarten movement throughout the world; to bring into active cooperation all kindergarten interests; to promote the establishment of kindergartens; and to elevate the standard of the professional training of the kindergartner.

Publications: Childhood Education, 10 issues yearly; $3.00 and $2.50; $2.00 with membership in supporting organization. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Rochester, N. Y.

INTERNATIONAL LABOR OFFICE, WASHINGTON BRANCH (1920); 734 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; Leifur Magnusson, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To represent in the United States the International Labor Organization, associated with the League of Nations. The branch office serves as a substation of the larger research clearing house located at Geneva, Switzerland, interprets the labor and industrial situation in the United States to the office in Geneva, and acts as a connecting link between those in the United States having interests and relations with the latter office.

Publications: International Labor Review, monthly, $6.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

INTERNATIONAL MIGRATION SERVICE (1921); prior to 1924, "Migration Service, World's Y.W.C.A."; Headquarters: 10 rue de la Bourse, Geneva, Switzerland; American Branch, 1 Madison Ave., New York; International Dir., George L. Warren; Am. Branch Dir. (Vacancy).

Membership: Individuals, 414, of whom 248 are in America and 166 in Europe.

Purpose: To render service through cooperative effort to individuals whose problems have arisen as a consequence of migration and the solution of which involves action in more than one country; and to study from an international standpoint the conditions and consequences of migration in their effect on individual, family, and social life.

Publications: Migrants, published biennially at Geneva, and occasional pamphlets and printed memoranda, sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in August, 1929, in Geneva, Switzerland.

INTERNATIONAL MOVEMENT OF GIRL SCOUTS AND GIRL GUIDES. *See* GIRL GUIDES AND GIRL SCOUTS, WORLD BUREAU.

INTERNATIONAL ORDER OF THE KING'S DAUGHTERS AND SONS, INC. (1888); prior to 1891 "The King's Daughters"; Suite 1200, 370 Lexington Ave., New York; Mrs. Laura S. Goodhue, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 77,821; constituent organizations, 38, in 18 countries.

Purpose: To develop spiritual life and stimulate Christian activities. Maintains homes of every kind that minister to the relief of suffering, and the comfort of mankind from infancy to the close of life.

Publications: Silver Cross, 10 issues yearly; $1.00 in the United States and Canada; $1.50 in foreign countries. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Ottawa, Canada.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIAL CHRISTIAN INSTITUTE (1927); 2 rue de Montchoisy, Geneva, Switzerland; Professor Adolf Keller, Gen. Secy. American representative, Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America, 105 East 22d St., New York.

Departments: Information Service, Dr. Vallette; Research, Dr. Schoenfeld.

Membership: Group sections, representing evangelical social work in various countries.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a center of international research and information on the social activity of the Protestant churches and for conference on social action. The Institute is studying the meaning of the Christian ethic and the Christian spirit, in the fields of industry and labor, and what should be the program of the churches in relation to such matters. It works in cooperation with the social agencies of the churches, and with general social organizations, and is the medium of contact between the various international headquarters at Geneva.

Publications: Stockholm, a scientific quarterly, $2.50 a year; Life and Work, an informational quarterly, 75 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in August, 1929, in Eisenach.

INTERNATIONAL SOCIETY FOR CRIPPLED CHILDREN, INC. (1921); 800 Lorain County Bank Bldg., Elyria, O.; Harry H. Howett, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Editorial, Vivian M. Hackett; Bureau of Information, Mary L. Ebersole.

Membership: Individuals, 750; constituent organizations, 32.

Purpose: To bring into existence state, provincial, and national societies for crippled children; to assist them and other interested agencies in coordinating their efforts and working out their plans for providing education, treatment, care, and vocational guidance for crippled children, and to serve as a world clearing house of information in this field of service.

Publications: The Crippled Child, bimonthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in March, 1929, in Minneapolis.

INTERNATIONAL SUNSHINE SOCIETY, INC. (1896); Rooms 502–503, 96 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Cynthia Westover Alden, Pres. Gen.

Membership: Branches, 400, averaging 10 to 500 members each.

Purpose: To incite its members to kind and helpful deeds; to organize branches; to publish an official organ; to contribute help to the needy and the sick; to operate homes, nurseries, kindergartens, and playgrounds; to establish a relief corps in time of war, famine, and pestilence; and to bring sunshine into the greatest possible number of hearts and homes.

Publications: Bulletin, monthly, $1.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Saginaw, Mich.

INTERNATIONAL UNION OF GOSPEL MISSIONS (1913); 269–271 West 47th St., New York; Rev. C. E. White, Secy.

Departments: Field Work, Eastern Dept., J. H. Schlichter; Western Dept., Rev. E. R. MacKinney.

Membership: Individuals, 600; constituent organizations, 200.

Purpose and Activities: To further the work of rescue missions and to plant such agencies wherever needed, with facilities for meeting the needs of the homeless, hungry, and unemployed, and for holding every-night gospel services.

Publications: Our Missions, quarterly, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Lancaster, Pa.

ITALIAN WELFARE LEAGUE, INC. (1920); 345 Lexington Ave., New York; Carlotta N. V. Schiapelli, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Washington, D. C., Mae Simpson; Ellis Island, Katherine M. Schiapelli.

Purpose and Activities: To render service to Italian immigrants and to Italians resident in this country by means of case work, legal aid, medical care, advice, employment, interpretation, and visits to homes. Advice and guidance are given in problems of naturalization, widows' pensions, the aged, medical care, financial assistance, and the commitment of children.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1929, in New York.

J. C. PENNEY FOUNDATION (1923); 330 West 34th St., New York; Dr. Daniel A. Poling, Gen'l Dir.

Departments: Research, Robert W. Bruère.

Purpose and Activities: To aid religious, benevolent, charitable, scientific, and educational projects. Provides for research, experimentation, and counsel, principally in the field of vocational guidance.

JAMES H. HYSLOP FOUNDATION (1927); 430 West 116th St., New York; Titus Bull, M.D., Pres. and Res. Dir.

Purpose: To encourage investigations concerning the problems of psychosis and neurosis, and their relationship to the faculty of lucidity.

JEANES (ANNA T.) FOUNDATION. *See* NEGRO RURAL SCHOOL FUND, ANNA T. JEANES FOUNDATION.

JEWISH AGRICULTURAL SOCIETY, INC. (1900); 301 East 14th St., New York; Gabriel Davidson, Gen. Mgr.

Departments: Farm Loan, Philip R. Strisik; Farm Settlement: Jacob M. Maze; Extension, Benjamin C. Stone; Sanitation, Dr. Edward A. Goodwin; Employment, Joseph Blaustein.

Membership: Individuals, 35.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage farming among Jews. The society advises on purchase of farms, grants farm loans, maintains an advice bureau on agricultural and kindred matters, sends out itinerant farm instructors, maintains a purchasing service bureau, awards scholarships and grants student loans, publishes an agricultural magazine in Yiddish, and maintains a rural sanitation service and a farm employment agency.

Publications: The Jewish Farmer, monthly, 75 cents a year.

JEWISH CHAUTAUQUA SOCIETY (1903); 1305 Stephen Girard Bldg., Philadelphia; Jeannette Miriam Goldberg, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,500.

Purpose and Activities: To create by means of popular education a broader tolerance and deeper insight into the life of the Jew on the basis of his historic traditions and ideals. The Society has operated in every state. Each year from 30 to 35 lecturers are sent to over 30 leading university summer schools, representing approximately 25 states.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in San Antonio.

JEWISH WAR VETERANS OF THE UNITED STATES (1894); name changed in 1929 from Jewish Veterans of the Wars of the Republic; 243 West 34th St., New York; Julius S. Berg, Commander-in-Chief.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 26 posts.

Purpose: To inculcate and keep alive the spirit of comradeship among Jewish men who fought in the wars of the Republic; and to assist such comrades and their families as may stand in need of help, encouragement, or protection.

Publications: The Jewish Veteran, 12 issues yearly, $1.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, at Lake Huntington, N. Y.

JEWISH WELFARE BOARD (1917); 71 West 47th St., New York; Harry L. Glucksman, Exec. Dir.

Departments: Jewish Center Activities, Louis Kraft; Campaigns, Philip R. Goldstein; Jewish Extension Education, Mordecai Soltes; Army and Navy, Isadore Abelson.

Membership: Constituent organizations, approximately 300.

Purpose: To promote the religious, intellectual, physical, and social well being and development of Jews; to stimulate the organization of Jewish Centers, Young Men's Hebrew Associations, Young Women's Hebrew Associations, and kindred societies; to assist, advise and encourage such societies, further and correlate their activities, and promote the interchange of advantages afforded; to cooperate with other organizations for the development of Judaism and good citizenship; and to promote the social welfare of soldiers, sailors, and marines in the Army and Navy of the United States, and to provide adequate opportunity for their education, religious worship, devotion, solace, and improvement. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS in Part I.

Publications: The Jewish Center, quarterly, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in December, 1928, in Washington, D. C.

JOHN F. SLATER FUND (1882); Box 418, Charlottesville, Va.; James H. Dillard, Pres. and Dir.

Activities: The resources of the Fund have been used in supporting public county training schools established by the Slater Board, and in assisting colleges in the payment of salaries. A large number of publications has been issued relating to the education of Negroes.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

JOHN S. OLIVER MEMORIAL RESEARCH FOUNDATION (1928); St. Margaret Memorial Hospital, Pittsburgh; H. D. Lightbody, Dir.

Purpose: To provide facilities for clinical, medical research in connection with the active clinical work in St. Margaret Memorial Hospital.

JOHN SIMON GUGGENHEIM MEMORIAL FOUNDATION (1925); 551 Fifth Ave., New York; Henry Allen Moe, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge and understanding and the appreciation of beauty by aiding

scholars, scientists, and artists in the prosecution of their labors. To that end fellowships have been granted to men and women to carry on investigations in a variety of fields. Among the subjects for the study of which grants have been made are epilepsy, unemployment, race relations, and trade unions.

JOINT COMMITTEE OF THE ASSOCIATION OF COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS AND THE LOCAL COMMUNITY COMMITTEE OF THE UNIVERSITY OF CHICAGO. *See* REGISTRATION OF SOCIAL STATISTICS.

JOINT VOCATIONAL SERVICE, INC. (1927); a union of earlier departments of the American Association of Social Workers and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing; 130 East 22d St., New York, and 264 Boylston St., Boston; Lillian A. Quinn, Dir.

Departments: Social Work, Florence Carney, Anne Starr Taylor; Public Health Nursing, Anna L. Tittman, R.N.; New England Office, Mabel Gair Curtis.

Purpose and Activities: To provide vocational information about social work and public health nursing; to offer placement service and vocational guidance throughout these fields on a nonprofit-making basis. The organization works in conjunction with the national professional and functional organizations which created and direct this service.

Publications: Annual Report. List of publications will be sent on request.

JOSIAH MACY, JR., FOUNDATION (1930); 565 Park Ave., New York; Marlborough Churchill, Exec. Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote medical research and the relief of suffering. One grant has been made—for an investigation on gallstones and the relation of the splanchnic area to heart functions.

JUDGE BAKER FOUNDATION (1917); 40 Court St., Boston; Dr. William Healy, Dr. Augusta Bronner, Directors.

Departments: Psychiatric, Dr. Bryant E. Moulton; Psychological, Louise Wood; Social Service, Mildred Dewey; Executive, Edith G. Stedman.

Purpose and Activities: To study the personality, conduct, and educational problems of childhood and youth. The Foundation's first duties are to the Juvenile Court in Boston; otherwise, social agencies and schools and families are served. Cooperative therapeutic work is carried on with agencies, and also direct therapeutic work with individuals and families.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

JULIUS ROSENWALD FUND (1917); 900 South Homan Ave., Chicago; Edwin R. Embree, Pres.

Departments: Medical Services, Michael M. Davis; Southern Schools, S. L. Smith; Negro Welfare, George R. Arthur.

Purpose: To promote Negro education, Negro health agencies, cooperation in pay clinics and medical service for persons of moderate means; and the development of county library service in the southern states; to give aid to the study of social problems and assistance to a few educational projects.

Publications: Annual Review, yearly, free.

JUNIOR ACHIEVEMENT, INC. (1919); prior to Nov. 29, 1926, known as the Bureau of the Eastern States Agricultural and Industrial League; 33 Pearl St., Springfield, Mass.; Morris E. Alling, Mgr.

Departments: Field Counselor, Frank W. Barber; Boys' Work, Harry Gay; Girls' Work, Mrs. Mary D. Connell.

Membership: Individuals, 11,903; constituent organizations, 1,024 clubs.

Purpose: To furnish leadership and direction to children associated in small groups or clubs, who are engaged in simple hand-processes by which objects useful and artistic are manufactured, and through which they gain experience in business procedure, buying and selling, principles of cooperation, marketing, management, wages, costs, and how to obtain money for their corporate needs and to reinvest the proceeds for the continuation of business. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: Junior Achievement Magazine, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

JUNIOR LEAGUE OF AMERICA. *See* ASSOCIATION OF JUNIOR LEAGUES OF AMERICA.

KNIGHTHOOD OF YOUTH. *See* NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC.

KNIGHTS OF COLUMBUS (1882); 45 Wall St., New Haven; William J. McGinley, Supreme Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 614,784; constituent organizations in the United States, Canada, and other countries, state, 63, local, 2,548.

Purpose and Activities: To render pecuniary aid to members and their dependents, and assistance to sick and disabled members; to promote social and intellectual intercourse among members; to promote and conduct educational, charitable, religious, social welfare, war relief welfare, and public welfare work. Operates as a fraternal benefit society; conducts correspondence school for members, and is engaged in boys' work. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS in Part I.

Publications: Columbia, monthly, 50 cents a year; Columbian Squires Herald, monthly, 25 cents a copy; Weekly News Sheet.

Annual meeting was held in August, 1929, in Milwaukee.

KNIGHTS OF KING ARTHUR (1893); Lock Box 169, Boston; Albert Morrissey, Nat'l Seneschal.

Departments: Knights of King Arthur, for boys of 12 years up; Yeomen of King Arthur, for boys 9 to 12 years of age; Queens of Avalon, for girls of 12 years up; and Maids of Avalon, for girls 9 to 12 years of age.

Membership: Individuals, about 7,500; local branches known as castles or courts, 160.

Purpose and Activities: To offer to boys and girls a church order of high ideals, wholesome friendships, and definite religious training. Activities include church work, outdoor recreation, athletic contests, manual training, and mental development.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in Charlestown, Mass.

LABOR BUREAU, INC. (1920); 2 W. 43d St., New York.

Departments: Research, Alfred L. Bernheim, Sara Bernheim, Ruth Budinoff, S. B. Lewin, Estelle Shrifte, George Soule, and Norman Ware; Auditing, Stuart Chase, Kathryn Fenn; Stenographic, Esther Gladstone.

Activities: Renders professional services of accounting, publicity, research, and economic counsel to the organized labor movement of the United States. Fees are charged, covering only the cost of the service. The Bureau has collected and prepared data for use by trade unions in arbitration cases; and has made studies relating to wages, cost of living, employers' profits, pensions, unemployment insurance, and other subjects. The Labor Bureau of Middle West and the Pacific Coast Labor Bureau operate on the same principles as Labor Bureau, Inc., but are independently managed and financed.

Publications: Facts for Workers, monthly, $15, or $10 to libraries and educational publications, or $5.00 to labor organizations or individual trade union members whose union has subscribed at $15.

LAURA SPELMAN ROCKEFELLER MEMORIAL. On January 3, 1929, the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial ceased to exist. Its work was taken over by the Rockefeller Foundation and by a new corporation, the Spelman Fund of New York. See the two latter organizations.

LEAGUE FOR AMERICAN CITIZENSHIP, INC. (1913); 122 East 42d St., New York; Harold Fields, Exec. Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 8,000; constituent organizations, 215.

Activities: Interests immigrants in the ideals of American citizenship; helps those who wish to become citizens and seeks to bring about an active public interest in the Americanization of immigrants; assists other organizations not equipped to handle naturalization work.

LEAGUE TO ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT. *See* AMERICAN LEAGUE TO ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT.

LEOPOLD SCHEPP FOUNDATION; 225 West 34th St., New York; J. Harold Johnston, Exec. Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the moral, civic, and educational advancement of deserving boys and girls. In addition to the work with younger boys, the Foundation has established scholarships for men attending recognized colleges,

graduate and professional schools, and also several fellowships to assist individuals to pursue study and research in some branch of medicine which seems likely to be successful.

LIFWYNN FOUNDATION (1927); 27 East 37th St., New York; Hans C. Syz, M.D., Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To undertake and sponsor scientific study of the emotional life of man from the point of view of its community implications. The Foundation encourages the study of problems of emotional interaction in their bearing upon individual and social conflict; upon mental disturbance and social disorganization; upon industrial maladjustment and economic waste. The Foundation is not endowed but is supported by a few of its members. Studies so far made have been published in scientific journals under the names of Dr. Trigant Burrow, Scientific Director, Dr. Hans C. Syz, Secretary, and Dr. Elaine F. Kinder.

Publications: List of studies will be sent on request.

LUCIUS N. LITTAUER FOUNDATION (1929); 11 West 42d St., New York; Harry Starr, Secy.

Activities: The Foundation has been engaged in research in the field of pneumonia, in which field a number of studies have been published. It has also been engaged in cancer research.

McCORMICK (ELIZABETH) MEMORIAL FUND. *See* ELIZABETH McCORMICK MEMORIAL FUND.

McDERMOTT (ALICE) MEMORIAL FUND. *See* ALICE McDERMOTT MEMORIAL FUND.

MACY (JOSIAH, JR.) FOUNDATION. *See* JOSIAH MACY, JR., FOUNDATION.

MAIDS OF AVALON. *See* KNIGHTS OF KING ARTHUR.

MATILDA ZIEGLER FOUNDATION FOR THE BLIND (1928); 512 Fifth Ave., New York; William Ziegler, Jr., Pres.

Purpose: The continuance of the Matilda Ziegler Magazine for the Blind, which Mrs. Ziegler founded twenty-two years ago and has sent since that time to every blind person in the United States and Canada who can read one of the point systems in which it is printed.

MILBANK MEMORIAL FUND (1905); name changed in 1921 from The Memorial Fund Association; 49 Wall St., New York; John A. Kingsbury, Secy.

Departments: Publications, Bertrand Brown; Research, Edgar Sydenstricker.

Purpose and Activities: To improve the physical, mental, and moral condition of humanity, and generally to advance charitable and benevolent objects. The Fund's philanthropic services are rendered in the fields of health, social welfare, and education. Over two-thirds of its total expenditures have been made for health—primarily for public health and health research—and in recent years contributions in this field have represented an increasingly larger share of the total. Since 1922 it has cooperated with three communities: Cattaraugus County, Syracuse, and the Yorkville District of the city of New York in the New York Health Demonstrations project.

Publications: Quarterly Bulletin free on request. List of publications will be sent on request.

MILFORD CONFERENCE (1922); 105 East 22d St., New York; Antoinette Cannon, Secy.

Membership: Eight representatives of national social case work organizations, and 17 serving yearly by invitation of the Committee on Program and Invitation.

Purpose and Activities: To afford a regular opportunity to social case workers in different fields to discuss intimately their common interests. The Conference takes its name from the town of Milford, Pennsylvania, where its earliest meetings were held. In 1929 the American Association of Social Workers published a report by the conference entitled *Social Casework, Generic and Specific, An Outline.*

MOTHERS' AID GROUP (1922); formerly Committee on Public Aid to Mothers with Dependent Children in Their Own Homes; 244 Madison Ave., New York; Mary F. Bogue, Chmn.

Purpose: To offer a medium of intercommunication for agencies administering mothers' aid; to interpret the needs and trends within the field, and to aid in the development of standards; to hold meetings durings the National Conference of Social Work; and to cooperate with the United States Children's Bureau in its mothers' aid activities.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION SERVICE (1926); 261 Broadway, New York; Russell Forbes, Dir.

Departments: Publications, Welles A. Gray; Library, Ethel K. Ostrow.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a nonpartisan clearing house of information on all phases of municipal administration for research bureaus, public officials, leagues of municipalities, libraries, and other organizations and individuals working for the betterment of city government. The service sponsors the annual meeting of the Governmental Research Association held jointly with the National Municipal League and the National Association of Civic Secretaries under the title, National Conference on Improving Government.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

MURRY AND LEONIE GUGGENHEIM FOUNDATION (1929); 120 Broadway, New York; Murry Guggenheim, Pres.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world through charitable and benevolent activities. This is the broad purpose for which the Foundation was organized. Its immediate purpose is to render free dental relief to the poor children of New York City.

MUSIC SUPERVISORS NATIONAL CONFERENCE (1907); Board of Education, Cleveland, Ohio; Russell V. Morgan, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 7,507.

Purpose and Activities: To promote improved conditions and greater efficacy in music education, and to assist the development of standards of culture and life through ample and wise use of music. Research and propaganda are carried on to these ends.

Publications: Music Supervisors Journal, 5 issues yearly, $1.00; Proceedings, annual, $2.50. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in March, 1930, in Chicago.

NATHAN HOFHEIMER FOUNDATION, INC. (1919); Room 1602, 1776 Broadway, New York; I. E. Goldwasser, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of living conditions of unfortunate persons by research and publications as well as by the establishment of benevolent activities and agencies. Research activities have been carried on in the fields of education and social work in New York City through agencies to which grants have been made for research purposes.

NATIONAL ACADEMY OF VISUAL INSTRUCTION (1920); 1400 Oread Ave., Lawrence, Kans.; Ellsworth C. Dent, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 150; associates, 45; institutions, 12; contributing, 8.

Purpose and Activities: To maintain an organization through which schools, churches, parent-teacher associations, clubs, welfare organizations, and so forth, may cooperate in furthering better production and more systematic and intelligent use of lantern slides, motion pictures, charts, art collections, exhibits, and models; to prosecute research in visual instruction and to establish a clearing house of information.

Publications: Visual Instruction Directory, yearly. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1930, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL AMATEUR ATHLETIC FEDERATION (1922); 6 North Michigan Ave., Chicago; John L. Griffith, Exec. Vice-Pres.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 18.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the development of amateur athletics in the United States.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL AMATEUR ATHLETIC FEDERATION, WOMEN'S DIVISION (1923); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Mary Van Horn, Office Exec.

Membership: Individuals, 213; constituent organizations, 459.

Purpose: To safeguard girls' sports, and to help bring to every girl opportunity to take part in recreational activities suited to her strength; to establish in practice the principles of conduct of girls' athletics, recognized as most appropriate to girls of different age groups and strength limitations.

Publications: News Letter, monthly, for members only. List of books and pamphlets for sale or distribution furnished on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1930, in Boston.

NATIONAL APPEALS INFORMATION SERVICE (1927); 71 West 47th St., New York; William Shroder, Pres.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 43 Jewish federations.

Purpose: To make studies, on behalf of its constituent organizations, of agencies making appeals to Jewish communities, and to encourage a cooperative relationship between Jewish communities and the agencies making national appeals.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL ASSEMBLY OF CIVIL SERVICE COMMISSIONERS. *See* CIVIL SERVICE ASSEMBLY OF THE UNITED STATES AND CANADA.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR MIDDLE AGE EMPLOYES; 507 Fifth Ave., New York; William Henry Roberts, Exec. Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To focus public attention on the needs of mature workers in industry, and to create openings in industry based upon the experience and the ability of each worker without regard to age.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE (1909); 69 Fifth Ave., New York; Walter White, Acting Secy.

Departments: Branches, Robert W. Bagnall; The Crisis, W. E. B. Du Bois.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 100,000; constituent organizations, 325.

Purpose: To combat the spirit of persecution which confronts the colored people and other minority groups in the United States; and to safeguard their civil, legal and political rights, and secure for them equality of opportunity with all other citizens.

Publications: The Crisis, monthly, $1.50. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Cleveland.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY AND PREVENTION OF TUBERCULOSIS. *See* NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION FOR THE STUDY OF EPILEPSY. *See* AMERICAN PSYCHIATRIC ASSOCIATION.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF CIVIC SECRETARIES (1912); 604 Keenan Bldg., Pittsburgh; H. Marie Dermitt, Pres.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 53.

Purpose and Activities: To promote activities relating to civic life, such as city planning and zoning, recreation, sanitation, waterways, bridges, housing, parks and playgrounds, honest elections, taxes, tax assessments, public education, cooperative marketing, courts, legislation, and so forth.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF COLORED WOMEN (1896); 1114 O St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Sallie W. Stewart, Pres.

Departments: Frederick Douglass Memorial Association, Mrs. Nettie L. Napier; Hallie Q. Brown Scholarship Fund, Hallie Q. Brown.

Membership: Individuals, 20,000; constituent organizations, state, 44, sectional, 5.

Purpose and Activities: To raise to the highest plane the home life, moral standards, and civic life of the race. The work is carried on through departments that reach the individual women and clubs through sectional and state chairmen. Better homes, education, health, and hygiene, social service, and women in industry are now being emphasized.

Publications: National Notes, monthly, 50 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in July, 1930, at Hot Springs, Ark.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF JEWISH COMMUNITY CENTER SECRETARIES (1918); 71 West 47th St., New York; Abraham W. Rosenthal, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, about 200.

Purpose and Activities: To foster and develop interest in Jewish center work, and to promote friendly and helpful relations among Jewish community center workers.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF LEGAL AID ORGANIZATIONS (1923); 3660 University Ave., Los Angeles; John S. Bradway, Secy.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 36.

Purpose: To promote and develop legal aid work; to encourage the formation of new legal aid organizations wherever they may be needed; to provide a central body with defined duties and powers for the guidance of legal aid work; and to cooperate with the judiciary, the bar, and all organizations interested in the administration of justice.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Cincinnati.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF REMEDIAL LOAN SOCIETIES. *See* NATIONAL FEDERATION OF REMEDIAL LOAN SOCIETIES.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF STATE CONFERENCE SECRETARIES (1924); Perry P. Denune, Secy., Ohio State University, Columbus.

Membership: Individuals, 22, representing chiefly state conferences.

Purpose and Activities: To discuss the general methodology of conferences—their functions, relationship to other organizations, objectives, programs, and so forth. Activities are limited to holding an annual meeting as an associate group of the National Conference of Social Work.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in San Francisco.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TEACHERS OF CRIPPLED CHILDREN (1923); Rosamond Rouse, Secy., Blodgett Hospital, Grand Rapids.

Purpose: To promote the education and the care of crippled children.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in Cleveland.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF THE DEAF (1880); 6345 Kenwood Ave., Chicago; A. L. Roberts, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500; constituent organizations, state associations of the deaf.

Purpose: To improve, develop, and extend schools for the deaf throughout the world, and especially in the United States; to further the intellectual, professional, and industrial improvement and social enjoyment of members through correspondence, consultation, and the forming of branch societies and national conventions.

Publications: Convention reports, free.

Triennial Convention will be held in August, 1930, in Buffalo.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF TRAVELERS AID SOCIETIES (1917); 25 West 43d St., New York; Sherrard Ewing, Gen. Dir.

Departments: Field Service, Bertha McCall.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 135.

Purpose and Activities: To provide through the work of field representatives, through the collection and distribution of information, through the arrangement of district meetings and institutes, and through the securing of cooperating representatives an essential correlation of the service and development of the travelers aid organizations of the United States.

Publications: Travelers Aid, occasional issues; Directory of Travelers Aid Service, annually; sent to travelers aid societies and cooperating representatives.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

NATIONAL ASSOCIATION OF VISITING TEACHERS. *See* AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF VISITING TEACHERS.

NATIONAL BUREAU OF ECONOMIC RESEARCH, INC. (1920); Room 1104, 51 Madison Ave., New York; Gustav R. Stahl, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Directors of Research: Edwin F. Gay, Wesley C. Mitchell.

Membership: 22 directors.

Purpose: To encourage in the broadest and most liberal manner investigation, research, and discovery, and the application of knowledge to the well-being of mankind; and in particular to conduct, or assist in the making of, exact and impartial investigations in the field of economic, social and industrial science; and to this end to cooperate with governments, universities, learned societies, and individuals.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC BOY LIFE BUREAU OF THE BOY SCOUTS. *See* NATIONAL CATHOLIC COMMITTEE ON SCOUTING.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC COMMITTEE ON SCOUTING (1926); 2 Park Ave., New York; Ray O. Wyland, Acting Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 10 committee members.

Purpose: To promote the formation of Boy Scout troops among Catholic boys; to assist local Scout Councils in securing the cooperation of the Catholic authorities in their several communities; to bring to the attention of pastors and others having the direction of groups of Catholic boys, the benefits of the Scout program; to stimulate among young men of the Church the desire for leadership as scoutmasters; in localities where there are no troops under Catholic leadership, to assist scoutmasters to understand and to execute the wishes of the Catholic authorities concerning the religious duties of Catholic boys in other troops.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC GUILD OF NURSES. *See* INTERNATIONAL CATHOLIC FEDERATION OF NURSES.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE CONFERENCE (1919); 1312–14 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Rev. John J. Burke, C.S.P., S.T.D., Gen. Secy.

Departments: Education, Rev. George Johnson, Ph.D.; Press, Justin McGrath; Social Action, Rev. John A. Ryan, D.D., and Rev. R. A. McGowan; Legal, Wm. F. Montavon; Lay Organizations, see under NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CATHOLIC MEN and NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CATHOLIC WOMEN; Executive, Rev. John J. Burke, C.S.P., S.T.D.; *Bureaus:* Rural Life, Rev. Edwin V. O'Hara, LL.D.; Industrial Relations, Linna E. Bresette; Citizenship, Elizabeth B. Sweeney; Social Welfare, Rose J. McHugh; National Catholic Welfare Conference Review, Charles A. McMahon; Immigration, Bruce M. Mohler; Publicity and Information, Patrick J. Ward; Historical Records, Daniel J. Ryan; Publications, W. Ed. Gannon; Business and Auditing, W. Ed. Gannon.

Membership: No individual members or constituent organization members except through the membership of its two coordinate lay organizations—the National Council of Catholic Men and National Council of Catholic Women.

Purpose: To unify, coordinate and organize the Catholic people of the United States in works of education, social welfare, immigrant aid, and other activities.

Publications: National Catholic Welfare Conference Review, monthly, $1.00 in United States, $1.25 outside. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meetings: *See* NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CATHOLIC WOMEN and NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CATHOLIC MEN.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE COUNCIL. *See* NATIONAL CATHOLIC WELFARE CONFERENCE.

NATIONAL CATHOLIC WOMEN'S UNION; 706½ Maine St., Quincy, Ill.; Mrs. Sophia C. Wavering, Pres.

NATIONAL CHILD HEALTH COUNCIL. *See* NATIONAL HEALTH COUNCIL.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE (1904); 215 Fourth Ave., New York; Courtney Dinwiddie, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Legislation, Wiley H. Swift; Investigation, Charles E. Gibbons; Publicity and Research, Mrs. Gertrude Folks Zimand; Membership, Katharine Sloane Ward.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 11,000.

Purpose: To promote the welfare of society with respect to the employment of children in gainful occupations; to investigate and report facts; to raise the standard of parental responsibility; to assist in protecting children, by suitable legislation, against injurious employment, and thus to aid in securing for them an opportunity for elementary education and physical development; and to promote the enforcement of child labor laws.

Publications: The American Child, 10 issues yearly, $2.00. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC. (1912); 70 Fifth Ave., New York; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Knighthood of Youth, Francis W. K. Kirkham; Visual Education, Elizabeth Smith; Research in Tolerance, Rachel Davis-DuBois; Finance, Norene Munz.

Membership: Individuals, 1,619, consisting of 707 regular and 912 contributing members.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. The Association issues educational posters and slides, and through its Knighthood of

Youth provides homes and schools with a method of character training through actual practice.

Publications: Childhood and Character, 9 issues yearly. $1.00 a year; five subscriptions to one address, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL CHILDREN'S HOME AND WELFARE ASSOCIATION; 203 North Wabash Ave., Chicago; C. V. Williams, Secy.

Membership: State organizations, approximately 30.

Purpose and Activities: To promote an annual meeting for inspirational purposes of representatives or "alumni" of pioneer state-wide home-finding organizations. Prior to the organization of the Child Welfare League of America, standards of child placing were actively promoted among member agencies.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco in conjunction with the National Conference of Social Work.

NATIONAL CIVIC FEDERATION (1900); Metropolitan Tower, New York; Ralph M. Easley, Chmn., Exec. Council.

Departments, Commissions, and *Committees:* Industrial Relations, Active Citizenship, Industrial Inquiry, Anti-Trust Legislation, Injunctions in Labor Disputes, Forms of Employee Organization and of Employment Contracts, Industrial Welfare, Subversive Activities, Woman's Department.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the solution of problems related to social and industrial progress, providing especially for the discussion of questions of national import, aiding crystallization of enlightened public opinion, and promoting legislation when desirable. The executive committee represents the public, employers, and wage-earners.

NATIONAL CIVIL SERVICE REFORM LEAGUE (1881); 521 Fifth Ave., New York; H. Eliot Kaplan, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 600; constituent organizations, 17.

Purpose: To advance the merit system and to improve the administration of the civil service throughout the United States.

Publications: Good Government, 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year; Annual Proceedings, 25 cents a copy. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL COMMISSION ON LAW OBSERVANCE AND ENFORCEMENT (1929); Tower Bldg., Fourteenth and K Sts., N. W., Washington, D. C.; W. F. Barry, Secy.; Clair Wilcox, Director of Research.

Purpose: To seek a solution of the entire question of law enforcement and organization of justice through a nation-wide inquiry. Subcommittees and their chairmen: Causes of Crime, Henry W. Anderson; Statistics of Crime and Criminal Justice, Roscoe Pound; Police, Frank J. Loesch; Prosecution, Monte M. Lemann; Courts, Judge William I. Grubb; Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole, Judge Kenneth Mackintosh; Prohibition, George W. Wickersham; Juvenile Delinquency, Ada L. Comstock; Criminal Justice and the Foreign Born, Newton D. Baker; Governmental Lawlessness, Judge William S. Kenyon; and Cost of Crime, Judge Paul J. McCormick.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC. (1909); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Dr. C. M. Hincks, Gen. Dir.

Departments: Field Service, Dr. George K. Pratt; Community Clinics, Dr. George S. Stevenson; Hospital Service, Dr. Samuel W. Hamilton; Information and Statistics, Frederick W. Brown.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 600 (through election by Executive Committee); affiliated organizations, 40.

Activities: The committee works for the conservation of mental health; reduction and prevention of mental and nervous disorders and defects; improved care and treatment of persons suffering from mental diseases; special training and supervision of the feeble-minded; and the acquisition and dissemination of reliable information on these subjects and on mental factors involved in the problems of education, industry, delinquency, dependency, and others related to the broad field of human behavior.

Publications: Mental Hygiene, quarterly, $3.00 a year; Bulletin, monthly, $1.00 a year, sent to subscribers to Mental Hygiene free. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS. *See* National Society for the Prevention of Blindness.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR THE STUDY OF JUVENILE READING. *See* PAYNE FUND.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE OF HEALTH COUNCIL EXECUTIVES (1927); Department of Public Health, New Haven; Ira V. Hiscock, Chmn.

Membership: Organizations, 8; committees of community chests or councils of social agencies, 20.

Purpose: To promote the coordination of public and private health work; to serve as a forum for the discussion of health and sickness problems, policies, and plans; to develop and improve standards through joint study of special problems; to secure improvement of existing health facilities and services, and the establishment of new or additional health facilities or services where needed.

Publications: Mimeographed reports. List will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in San Francisco.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON BOYS' AND GIRLS' CLUB WORK (1921); 360 North Michigan Ave., Chicago; G. L. Noble, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Publicity, Chas. H. Stoneberg; Service and Supply, Ellen Moberg; Accounting, Beulah Wright.

Membership: Individuals, 24.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage, aid, and extend 4-H Clubs for boys and girls throughout the United States.

Publications: National Boys' and Girls' Club News, monthly, 35 cents a year; 4-H Handy Book. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November and December, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON DESERTION (1926); 624 Federal Reserve Bank Bldg., Cleveland; Mrs. Nelson C. Leitch, Secy.

Membership: Individuals on the governing board, 11.

Purpose and Activities: To unite in an organized group the representatives of all agencies dealing with the problems of desertion and non-support; and to study the extent of the problem, its cost, and the legal and social machinery necessary to meet it. Activities include the compiling of statistics on the subject and the assembling of interpretations of such figures as a means of remedying conditions.

Publications: Two reports for distribution.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON EMPLOYER-EMPLOYEE RELATIONSHIPS IN THE HOME (1928); Room 905, Social Service Bldg., 311 South Juniper St., Philadelphia; Dr. Amey E. Watson, Dir.

Membership: Executive Committee, 21; consulting members, over 50; also contributing members.

Purpose: To serve as a clearing house for household employers, household employes, placement agencies, and educational agencies which are conducting experimental and educational work in this field; to stimulate studies and experiments, and if necessary to carry on independent research; to stimulate conference groups of employers and employes to work out standards of work and relationships in their communities.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in May, 1930, in Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON FEDERAL LEGISLATION FOR BIRTH CONTROL (1929); 46 West 15th St., New York, and Hotel Carlton, Washington, D. C.; Mrs. Margaret Sanger, Chmn.

Membership: An endorsing committee of 1,000 individuals in 43 states and the District of Columbia.

Purpose: To promote the adoption of a federal law to legitimatize the practice of contraception through scientific and hygienic methods, and to educate the adult public of all countries as to its advantages from the personal and social points of view.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON HOME ECONOMICS (1919); Frances Preston, Chmn., Associated Charities, Cleveland.

Membership: Individuals, 175.

Purpose and Activities: To determine standards of home economics work in social agencies and to promote further interest in its development. The Committee has promoted the unification of a quantity budget and a set of budget principles, and a study has been made of the home economics training necessary for social workers and of training in sociology necessary for home economics workers in social agencies.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Boston.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON NURSERY SCHOOLS (1926); name changed in 1927 from Tentative Organization of Nursery School Workers; 514 West 126th St., New York; Lois Hayden Meek, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, 19.

Purpose: To promote the interests and maintain standards in nursery-school education; to plan such conferences and undertake such activities as seem necessary for the progress and improvement of nursery schools; to cooperate with other agencies which are concerned with programs for early childhood education.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON PRISONS AND PRISON LABOR (1909); 4 West 57th St., New York; E. Stagg Whitin, Chmn. of Exec. Council.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 3,000.

Purpose: To study the problem of labor in prisons and correctional institutions for the sake of obtaining legislation providing for the employment of all prisoners in such a manner as to prevent unfair competition between prison-made goods and the products of free labor; also to obtain a fair proportion of the rightful earnings of prisoners for the use of their dependent families.

Publications: Annual reports and pamphlets reporting research. Pamphlets will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL COMMITTEE ON VISITING TEACHERS (1921); 8 West 40th St., New York; Jane F. Culbert, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individual members, 13.

Purpose and Activities: To act in an advisory capacity to the following groups: visiting teachers and candidates for that profession, communities which desire to introduce or have established visiting teacher service, and educational institutions which offer courses by visiting teachers on behavior problems of children; and to interpret visiting teacher service to educators, social workers, and the general public.

Publications: The Recorder, a mimeographed bulletin for visiting teachers, 4 or 5 issues during the school year; free to visiting teachers with whom the Committee is cooperating.

NATIONAL COMMUNITY CENTER ASSOCIATION (1913); 403 Fayerweather Hall, Columbia University, New York; LeRoy E. Bowman, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 200.

Purpose and Activities: To secure and make known information, interpretation, analysis and theory of community life and organization. Conferences are held in conjunction with the American Sociological Society, and the National Conference of Social Work.

Publications: Neighborhood and Community Section, Social Forces, quarterly, $4.00 a year; Members' Bulletin, bimonthly, $1.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF CATHOLIC CHARITIES (1910); Room 305, 1103 Vermont Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Rev. Dr. John O'Grady, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 2,000; organizations, 30.

Purpose and Activities: To bring about an exchange of views through the personal contact of experienced Catholic men and women in the work of charity; to collect and publish information concerning organization, problems, and results in charity work; also to help in fundamental agreements as to policies and methods of Catholic charities, as well as in all other types of charitable activity. No votes are taken on questions discussed, and no attempt is made to hamper individual or collective liberty.

Publications: Catholic Charities Review, monthly except July and August, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New Orleans.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF COMMISSIONERS ON UNIFORM STATE LAWS (1892); 209 South La Salle St., Chicago; John H. Voorhees, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, as a rule three from each state.

Purpose: To promote uniformity in state laws on all subjects where uniformity is deemed desirable and practicable. Laws drafted in fields of social work include child labor, desertion and nonsupport, illegitimacy, marriage licenses, marriage evasions, occupational diseases, workmen's compensation, and vital statistics.

Publications: Handbook, annual, $3.00.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Memphis.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF INTERNATIONAL INSTITUTES. *See* YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS, NATIONAL BOARD.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF JEWISH SOCIAL SERVICE (1899); 71 West 47th St., New York; George H. Rabinoff, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800; constituent organizations, 210.

Purpose: To discuss the problems of Jewish social work, to promote reforms in its administration, and to provide uniformity of action and cooperation in all matters pertaining to the development of Jewish philanthropic and communal activities without, however, interfering with the local work of any constituent society.

Publications: Proceedings, published annually, $2.00; Jewish Social Service Quarterly, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF JUVENILE AGENCIES; John A. Tinsley, Secy.-Treas., Woodbine, N. J.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 380 probation officers, special class teachers, and other social workers.

Activities: The conference brings together persons interested in juvenile work of any kind.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Toronto.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK (1873); 277 East Long St., Columbus; Howard R. Knight, Gen. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 3,360; organizations, 308.

Purpose and Activities: To facilitate discussion of the problems and methods of practical human improvement; to increase the efficiency of agencies and institutions devoted to this cause; and to disseminate information. Platforms are not formulated.

Publications: Bulletin, quarterly, 50 cents a year, free to members. Proceedings, yearly, free to members paying $5.00 or more. Extra copies obtainable from the University of Chicago Press at $3.00 plus postage.

Annual meeting was held in June and July, 1929 in San Francisco.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIETIES FOR THE PREVENTION OF CRUELTY TO CHILDREN. *See* AMERICAN HUMANE ASSOCIATION.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SUPERINTENDENTS OF JUVENILE TRAINING SCHOOLS AND REFORMATORIES (1923); George E. Marx, Secy., 604 Craycombe Ave., Baltimore.

Membership: Training school and reformatory superintendents, elected by existing members.

Purpose: To provide an opportunity for informal discussion of professional problems. Meetings are not open to the public. The conference in 1930 was held in February in New York.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF TUBERCULOSIS SECRETARIES (1921); 244 Madison Ave., New York; Harry L. Hopkins, Pres.

Membership: Professional workers of national, state, county, city, and town anti-tuberculosis societies affiliated with the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, executive heads of tuberculosis departments of national, state, county, city, and town boards of health, and such other persons as are recommended by the governing board of the Conference.

Purpose and Activities: To bring about a closer relation between its members, to work in close co-operation with and to extend the work of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, and to initiate methods by which secretaries of anti-tuberculosis societies in the United States may become more efficient in their work.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CITY PLANNING (1910); 130 East 22d St., New York; Flavel Shurtleff, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 500; constituent organizations, 105, consisting of official plan commissions, 58; unofficial organizations, 17; and libraries, 30.

Activities: The organization offers general advice on planning organizations and activities; provides speakers under special arrangement; holds an annual conference, presenting city and regional planning problems and proposed solutions; and publishes bulletins on all phases of city and regional planning.

Publications: Annual Proceedings, $2.40 to members, $3.00 to non-members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Buffalo.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON IMPROVING GOVERNMENT SERVICE. *See* MUNICIPAL ADMINISTRATION SERVICE.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON STATE PARKS (1921); 905 Union Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Herbert Evison, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 756.

Purpose: To encourage the establishment of publicly owned land and water areas valuable for scenic qualities and public recreation; and to supply information and counsel on parks, forests, and game preserves, and on methods of selection, planning, administration, development, and use.

Publications: State Recreation, quarterly, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1930, in Madison, Ind.

NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON STREET AND HIGHWAY SAFETY; 1615 H St., Washington, D. C.; A. W. Koehler, Secy.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS (1897); 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Mrs. A. C. Watkins, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Executive, Mrs. A. C. Watkins; Extension, Francis S. Hays; Field, Mrs. C. E. Roe and Mrs. C. E. Kendel.

Membership: Individuals, 1,382,741; state branches, 47 and the District of Columbia; local associations, 2,000.

Purpose: To promote child welfare in home, school, church, and community; to raise the standards of home life; to obtain more adequate laws for the care and protection of women and children; to bring into closer relation the home and school in order that parents and teachers may co-operate intelligently in the training of the child; and to develop between educators and the general public such united efforts as will provide for every child the highest advantages in physical, mental, moral, and spiritual education.

Publications: Child Welfare, monthly, $1.00 a year; Proceedings, yearly, $3.00. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE (1899); Room 1129, 156 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Florence Kelley, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Research, Marguerite M. Marsh; Extension, Emily S. Marconnier.

Membership: Individuals, 3,100, in 42 states and in other countries; constituent organizations, 18 in 14 states.

Purpose: To gain widest acceptance for the following principles: That responsibility for evil industrial conditions affecting women and minors rests largely upon the consuming public; and that it is therefore its duty to ascertain where and how goods are produced and distributed, and to insist that conditions of labor afford a wholesome existence for the workers.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF AGENCIES ENGAGED IN RURAL SOCIAL WORK (1920); 105 East 22d St., New York; Benson Y. Landis, Secy.

Membership: Constituent national organizations, 26; public agencies on a cooperating basis, 5.

Purpose and Activities: To enable the associating agencies to discuss their programs and policies; to prevent overlapping and duplication of rural social work; and to enable the associating agencies to coordinate their programs and to act jointly in investigating and promoting needed social work. Activities of the council are advisory only, and not binding upon the participating organizations and agencies.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF AMERICAN INDIANS; Bliss Bldg., Washington, D. C.; R. T. Bonnin, Secy.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CATHOLIC MEN (1920); 1312–1314 Massachusetts Ave. N. W., Washington, D. C.; Charles F. Dolle, Exec. Secy.

Membership: National affiliated bodies, 8; constituent local bodies, 727 parish councils, 348 Knights of Columbus councils, 80 Holy Name Societies, and 246 other local Catholic societies.

Purpose and Activities: To represent under the guidance of the Hierarchy the united voice of the Catholic laymen of the country in all matters of Catholic concern and matters affecting the general public welfare. The Council aims to organize a diocesan council in every diocese of the country, such councils federating but not supplanting any established organizations. The Council is the Men's Branch of the Department of Lay Organizations of the National Catholic Welfare Conference. (See its listing.)

Publications: Regular Monthly Information Service to its affiliated societies, and occasional special bulletins.

Annual Conference was held in October, 1929, in Fort Wayne, Ind.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF CATHOLIC WOMEN (1920); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Mary G. Hawks, Pres.

Departments: Executive, Agnes G. Regan, Secy.; Margaret T. Lynch, Asst. Secy.; Field, Dr. Anne Nicholson.

Membership: Constituent organizations, approximately 1,700, of which 15 are national, 7 are state, and the others local.

Purpose: To serve as the medium through which Catholic women may speak and act as a unit on matters of public interest; to stimulate the efficiency and usefulness of existing organizations of Catholic women; to render assistance to the work of all local Catholic women's organizations; and to act as a lay organization for the National Catholic Welfare Conference. (See its listing.)

Publications: The National Catholic Welfare Conference Review, monthly, $1.00 a year; Monthly Message, $1.50 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in September and October, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN (1893); 1860 Broadway, New York; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Farm and Rural Work, Mrs. Elmer Eckhouse; Service for Foreign Born, Cecilia Razovsky.

Membership: Individuals, about 52,000; constituent organizations, local, 222; state, 12.

Purpose: To promote a program of religious, educational, civic, and social service activities in relation to the following matters: education, farm and rural affairs, foreign born, legislation and civics, foreign relations, religion and religious education, vocational guidance and employment, blindness, sight conservation, and deafness.

Publications: The Jewish Woman, quarterly; The Immigrant, bimonthly. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF PARENT EDUCATION, INC. (1928); name changed from National Council of Parental Education; 41 East 42d St., New York; Flora M. Thurston, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Constituent organizations, local and national, 61.

Purpose: To promote coordination, counseling, and leadership in the field of parent education, and to give assistance in the following matters: state, county, and community programming; leadership training both lay and professional; program organization and program evaluation, including the criteria for testing programs; research in parent education; the conduct of conferences; and the placement of parent education leaders.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in November, 1928, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN OF THE UNITED STATES, INC. (1888); Room 1020, 480 Lexington Ave., New York; Katharine Hayward, Gen'l Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 207; constituent organizations, 24.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as a clearing house of national organizations of women in the United States, assembling and exchanging information on the activities and methods of its constituent organizations. No common programs are undertaken or joint resolutions passed affecting the policies of the constituent organizations. The Council has committees on child welfare, education, industrial relations, motion pictures, permanent peace, social hygiene, public health, and law enforcement.

Publications: Quarterly bulletins, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial meeting was held in November, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL COUNCIL ON NATURALIZATION AND CITIZENSHIP (1930); 112 East 19th St., New York; Ruth Z. Bernstein, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 115; constituent organizations, 17.

Purpose: To act as a clearing house for assembling information about naturalization and citizenship laws, procedure, organized naturalization aid and related matters, and to further a coordination of effort to bring about improved conditions.

NATIONAL CRIME COMMISSION (1925); 120 Broadway, New York; L. McH. Howe, Asst. to the Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 120; all state and local crime commissions are affiliated.

Purpose and Activities: To study problems in relation to the reduction and punishment of crime from a national standpoint, and make practical and definite recommendations which can be used as a basis for legislation in the different states; and to promote the creation of separate State Crime Commissions, coordinate their efforts, and furnish them with general information.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL DESERTION BUREAU, INC. (1911); 67 to 71 West 47th St., New York; Charles Zunser, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 16; constituent organizations, approximately 55 local Jewish federations and family welfare agencies.

Purpose: To locate Jewish family deserters; induce them to reunite with or support their families; or, failing this, to prosecute them according to law; to act in a general legal advising capacity in matters of domestic relations; and to institute and contest matrimonial actions at the request of constituent agencies.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL EDUCATION ASSOCIATION OF THE UNITED STATES (1857); 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; J. W. Crabtree, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To act as a professional organization in the field of education. The activities of the Association related to the field of social work are indicated by its committees on adult education, school health and physical education, social studies, and vocational education.

Publications: Journal, 9 issues yearly; Research Bulletins, 5 issues yearly; and Proceedings, published annually. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June and July, 1929, in Atlanta.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF BUSINESS AND PROFESSIONAL WOMEN'S CLUBS, INC. (1919); 1819 Broadway, New York; Emily R. Kneubuhl, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Field, Ruth Rich; Education, Frances Cummings; Publications, Helen Havener.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 56,000; constituent organizations, 46 state and 1,100 local.

Purpose and Activities: To elevate the standards of women in business and professions; to promote cooperation among them; and to extend their opportunities through education and better vocational adjustment. Health Education among business and professional women is furthered by contests for records of attendance at their places of business unbroken by illness. Periodic health examinations are also urged. Some 500 clubs have educational funds to assist girls in obtaining a high

school or college course, or training for a particular vocation. A survey of vocational facilities in local communities is being sponsored, including vocational books in libraries and agencies that offer a service of guidance or placement.

Publications: Independent Woman, monthly, $1.50 a year to nonmembers. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Mackinac Island, Mich.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF DAY NURSERIES, INC. (1898); 244 Madison Ave., New York; Mary F. Bogue, Exec. Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 192; constituent organizations, 177.

Purpose and Activities: To unite day nurseries in a common body and purpose; to aid them in the development of standards and practice by the following means: an advisory and information service, field visits, and studies; the publication of a monthly bulletin, record forms, and other literature; and the holding of conferences.

Publications: Bulletin, monthly, except August and September, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF MUSIC CLUBS (1898); 1711 Military St., Port Huron, Mich.; Mrs. Elmer J. Ottaway, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 400,000; constituent organizations, 5,000, including 48 state organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To make music a vital part of American life through education, legislation, and organization of all types of music groups; and to sponsor American students, artists, and composers. The member organizations include symphony orchestras, professional and non-professional orchestras and choruses, and music study groups.

Publications: National Directory of Music Clubs, $5.00 a copy; National Junior Bulletin, 9 issues yearly, 25 cents a year; National Music Club Magazine, 8 issues yearly, 50 cents a year; National Music Bulletin, 5 issues yearly, 25 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial Meeting was held in June, 1929, in Boston.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS (1909); 320 Midland Trust Bldg., St. Paul; D. S. Coffey, Chmn.

Membership: Constituent local organizations, 27.

Purpose: To encourage the formation of local remedial loan societies and to aid and direct persons interested in the work who contemplate organizing such societies; and to give information and advice concerning legislation, finance, problems of administration, and general information necessary for organization and management.

NATIONAL FEDERATION OF SETTLEMENTS, INC. (1911); 184 Eldridge St., New York; Albert J. Kennedy, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 85; constituent organizations, 160.

Purpose: To reinforce all phases of federated activity among neighborhood agencies; to bring together the results of settlement experience throughout the country; to secure capable recruits; to urge measures of state and national legislation suggested by settlement experience; and to promote the better organization of neighborhood life generally.

Publications: Neighborhood, quarterly, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL FLORENCE CRITTENTON MISSION (1883); 408 Duke St., Alexandria, Va.; Robert S. Barrett, Pres.

Departments: Gen. Supt., Mrs. Reba B. Smith; National Extension, Mrs. Elizabeth B. Collier.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 65

Purpose and Activities: To promote the care of unmarried mothers and their children, in its affiliated maternity homes and hospitals; and in general to promote preventive and protective work for young girls.

Publications: Bulletin, quarterly, 50 cents a year; Annual Report, 50 cents each.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

NATIONAL HEALTH CIRCLE FOR COLORED PEOPLE, INC. (1917); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Belle Davis, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 850; constituent organizations, 3.

Purpose: To organize public opinion and support for health work among colored people; to create and stimulate health consciousness and responsibility among the colored people in their own health problems; and to recruit, help educate, and place young colored women in public health work.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in New York.

NATIONAL HEALTH COUNCIL (1921); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Thomas C. Edwards, Bus. Mgr.

Membership: Constituent national organizations as follows: American Child Health Association; American Heart Association; American Public Health Association; American Social Hygiene Association; Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America; National Committee for Mental Hygiene; National Society for the Prevention of Blindness; National Organization for Public Health Nursing; National Tuberculosis Association.

Purpose: To coordinate the activities of its member organizations, and to carry on such other activities for the betterment of health as may be determined.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL HIGH SCHOOL ORCHESTRA AND BAND CAMP (1927); Interlochen, Mich. (summer); Box 386, Ann Arbor, Mich. (winter); Joseph E. Maddy, Pres.

Purpose: To combine the advantages of summer camp with musical instruction and training in citizenship, and to reward industry and loyalty to school and community on the part of high school students throughout the country.

Publications: The Scherzo, weekly during July and August, price 50 cents for the season. The Overture, annually, free on request. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL HOME FOR DISABLED VOLUNTEER SOLDIERS (1865); Dayton, Ohio; George H. Wood, Pres.

Membership: Branch homes in different states, 11.

Purpose: To provide both domiciliary and hospital care for disabled ex-service men and women.

NATIONAL HOME STUDY COUNCIL (1926); 839 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; J. S. Noffsinger, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 38.

Purpose and Activities: To promote sound educational standards among home study or correspondence schools. The Council inspects and approves home study schools, and advises gratis where approved home study courses in any field may be obtained.

Publications: Home Study Blue Book, annually, for free distribution.

NATIONAL HOUSING ASSOCIATION (1910); 105 East 22d St., New York; Lawrence Veiller, Secy. and Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 469.

Purpose and Activities: To improve housing conditions in every practicable way. Local associations or committees are organized; aid is given in campaigns of education; in drafting, enacting, and enforcing legislation; in organizing improved housing companies; and in carrying on and continuing the work after good standards have been established. The Association acts as a clearing house of information, publishes literature dealing with housing, holds housing institutes in different sections of the country, and an annual housing conference.

Publicatioms: Housing, quarterly, $4.00 a year; free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1929, in Philadelphia.

NATIONAL INDIAN ASSOCIATION (1879); Room 1113, 156 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Otto Heinigke, Pres.

Purpose and Activities: To teach industry, to give undenominational religious instruction to the Indians of the country, and to aid in their civilization. A mission is operated among the Crees and Chippewas at Turtle Mountain, N. D.

Publications: The Indian's Friend, monthly, 50 cents a year. Pamphlet, A Timely Reminder, will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in December, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL INDORSERS OF PHOTOPLAYS (1912); R. R. 16, Box 39 H, Indianapolis; Mrs. David Ross, Pres.

Membership: Representative groups in nearly every state in parent-teacher associations, women's clubs, and other organizations.

Purpose: To create a demand for motion pictures of high grade and of normally unobjectionable character; to procure motion pictures suitable for children's matinees; to encourage the use of motion pictures in schools; and to exhibit motion picture films—free of charge through cooperation with local distributors—to charitable and benevolent institutions and elsewhere, for the pleasure and assistance of the unfortunate.

Publications: A bulletin, 9 issues yearly, free to members and others.

NATIONAL INFORMATION BUREAU, INC. (1917); 215 Fourth Ave., New York; Mrs. May H. Harding, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 72; constituent organizations, 28.

Activities: Investigates and makes reports to its own members about national organizations engaged in social work, or organizations of a civic and philanthropic character which are supported entirely, or in part, by contributions from the general public.

Publications: Bulletin of endorsed agencies, published annually, 10 cents a copy.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION AND BUREAU OF MUNICIPAL RESEARCH (1907); name changed in 1921 from New York Bureau of Municipal Research; 261 Broadway, New York; Luther H. Gulick, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of public administration through special studies and surveys of national, state, and local administration of government and related activities, and post-graduate training of students for positions in public service. For the latter purpose a graduate school is conducted. A specialized library is maintained.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL INSTITUTE OF SOCIAL SCIENCES (1865); 280 Madison Ave., New York; Rosina Hahn, Secy.

Membership: Individual members, approximately 765.

Purpose: To promote study of social science and research therein, and to reward distinguished services rendered to humanity either by election to membership or by bestowal of its honor medals or other insignia. The Institute assists in social service by attendance through representative delegates at gatherings of important organizations and reports on their proceedings.

Periodicals: Journal, yearly, $2.00, free to members.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1930, in New York.

NATIONAL KINDERGARTEN ASSOCIATION (1909); 8 West 40th St., New York; Bessie Locke, Exec. Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To have kindergartens provided for all of the nation's children; and to get more public kindergartens opened and better kindergarten laws enacted. Field secretaries work in 45 states.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New York.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF COMPULSORY EDUCATION OFFICIALS (1911); 312 Court House, Memphis; Marguerite C. Andrew, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 300.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the educational welfare of children.

Publications: Proceedings, annually, $2.00 a copy.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Kansas City, Mo.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF NURSING EDUCATION (1893); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Nina D. Gage, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 300; constituent organizations, 27.

Purpose and Activities: To consider all questions relating to nursing education and standards for

schools of nursing, and to cooperate with health and educational agencies in the promotion of health teaching. Activities include research and study by committees, the preparation of books and pamphlets, and organization of an annual convention for the discussion of the organization's objectives.

Publications: Department of Nursing Education in the American Journal of Nursing—published monthly—$3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN VOTERS (1920); 532 17th St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Gladys Harrison, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Affiliated state leagues, with local branches, in 45 states, the District of Columbia, and Hawaii.

Purpose: To promote the participation of women in government, and to develop an informed and responsible relationship to the vote and to the operation of government. Activities of the state and local leagues in the field of social work include study of standards of public responsibility for child welfare and family status, education, social hygiene and industrial regulation, and support of necessary governmental policies or legislation.

Publications: Bulletin, monthly; also two pages contributed officially to The Woman's Journal, monthly. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April and May, 1930, in Louisville.

NATIONAL MALARIA COMMITTEE (1916); Mark F. Boyd, M.D., Secy.; Jackson, Miss.

Membership: Individuals, 164.

Purpose: To encourage research on malaria problems, and the extension of the efforts directed to the control of this disease. The Committee is affiliated with the Southern Medical Association and meets annually with that organization.

Publications: Proceedings published annually in the Southern Medical Journal.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Miami.

NATIONAL METHODIST HOSPITAL, HOME, AND DEACONESS ASSOCIATION (1918); 740 Rush St., Chicago; G. M. Hanner, Secy., Colorado Springs, Colo.

Membership: Individuals, 150.

Purpose and Activities: To promote an annual convention with program and discussion of subjects kindred to the work of members. The Association is the open forum of the Board of Hospitals, Homes, and Deaconess Work of the Methodist Episcopal Church. It has no legal status and no supervisional powers.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL MOTION PICTURE LEAGUE (1913); Heckscher Bldg., 730 Fifth Ave., New York; Mrs. Stanley P. Woodard, Pres.

Departments: Executive, Marjorie Sullivan; Reviewing, Elvie Hitchings; Social and Publicity, Joan Dwyer; Junior Committee, Frances Maher.

Membership: Individuals about 500; constituent organizations, national and international women's clubs and councils.

Purpose and Activities: To encourage production, exhibition, and patronage of wholesome motion pictures; and to render constructive criticisms to producers before the pictures are released to the theatres. Operations are not for profit. No financial support is received from the motion picture industry, and there are no connections with the industry or any of its affiliations. Activities include lectures, monthly publication of endorsed pictures, biweekly reports of pictures reviewed, and weekly radio programs featuring New York debutantes' opinions of endorsed pictures.

Publications: National Motion Picture League Bulletin, monthly, $5.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL LEAGUE (1894); 261 Broadway, New York; Russell Forbes, Secy.

Departments: Editorial, H. W. Dodds; Publicity, Howard P. Jones.

Membership: Individuals, about 3,000.

Purpose: To promote efficient and democratic government in city, county, state, and nation; to maintain an information service, and supply speakers and consultants to official bodies and

citizens' organizations; and through its research committees to form a national clearing house on government subjects.

Publications: National Municipal Review, monthly, $5.00 a year; free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL MUNICIPAL MUSIC COMMITTEE. *See* NATIONAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION.

NATIONAL MUSIC WEEK COMMITTEE (1924); 45 West 45th St., New York; C. M. Tremaine, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, representatives of 33 national agencies.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the observance of National Music Week annually, beginning with the first Sunday in May, with the local cooperation of schools, churches, clubs, stores, musical societies, music teachers, music dealers, and municipal authorities. The Committee is supported partly by contributions and partly by the sale of posters and other published matter for the use of local Music Week Committees.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING (1912); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Katherine Tucker, R.N., Gen. Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To promote and develop public health nursing, through cooperative relationships with other national health and social agencies and by other means. Activities include a central bureau of information, advisory and consultation service, field studies, and special statistical studies.

Publications: The Public Health Nurse, monthly, $3.00 a year; $2.00 to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial convention was held in June, 1928, in Louisville.

NATIONAL PARK SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR (1916); Washington, D. C.; Horace M. Albright, Dir.

Purpose: To conserve the scenery, the natural and historic objects, and the wild life of the national parks and monuments; and to provide for the enjoyment of those areas in such manner and by such means as will leave them unimpaired for future generations.

Publications: Annual Report. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL PARKS ASSOCIATION (1919); 1512 H St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Robert Sterling Yard, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,600.

Purpose and Activities: To promote educational and inspirational uses of the national parks; to lead the national movement for defense of the established standards when attacked in Congress; to uphold the prestige and power of the Interior Department in administration of the parks; to oppose efforts at political control; and to promote cooperating relationships with other unindustrial land systems, such as state parks, national monuments, and recreational and wilderness areas in national forests. The Association operates through a large number of federations, leagues, associations, and clubs throughout the country.

Publications: National Park Bulletin, 6 to 10 issues yearly; National Park News Circulars, 12 to 24 issues yearly; both free to members.

NATIONAL PLANT, FLOWER AND FRUIT GUILD, INC. (1893); 70 Fifth Ave., New York; Ida White Parker, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 8,000; constituent organizations, 70.

Purpose: To distribute flowers, growing plants, fruits, vegetables, jellies, and fruit juices to sick, shut-in, and handicapped individuals in their homes and in institutions which care for the less privileged classes; to carry on campaigns for conservation, education, and beautification with regard to all green, growing things.

Publications: The National Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild Magazine, quarterly, 50 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL PRISONERS AID ASSOCIATION (1910); 412 Youngeman Bldg., Des Moines; Charles Parsons, Secy.

Membership: Constituent state organizations, 35

Purpose and Activities: To develop and extend work for prisoners, including prison visitation, inspection of correctional institutions, assistance to prisoners, probation, parole, legislation, research, and public education on the problems of

penology and criminology; and to seek the cooperation of all interested in work for prisoners.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Toronto, Canada.

NATIONAL PROBATION ASSOCIATION (1907); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Charles L. Chute, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Field Work, Francis H. Hiller; Publications, Louise Franklin Bache; Extension, Edgar H. Rue.

Membership: Individuals, 10,217.

Purpose: To study and standardize methods of probation and parole work, both juvenile and adult, by conferences, field investigations and research; to extend and develop the probation system by legislation, the publication and distribution of literature, and in other ways; to promote the establishment and development of juvenile courts, domestic relations or family courts, and other specialized courts using probation; and to cooperate as far as possible with all movements promoting the scientific and human treatment of delinquency and prevention.

Publications: Probation, monthly bulletin, $1.00 a year; The Year-Book (Proceedings of the Annual Conference). List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

NATIONAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION (1906); name changed in 1930 from Playground and Recreation Association of America; 315 Fourth Ave., New York; Howard S. Braucher, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Field Service, John S. Tichenor; Correspondence and Consultation, Roy Smith Wallace; National Physical Education, James Edward Rogers; Park Recreation, Lebert H. Weir; Community Music, Augustus D. Zanzig; Community Drama, Mrs. Mabel Foote Hobbs; National Recreation School, George E. Dickie; Local Employment, Leah Chubuck; Research and Publications, Abbie Condit; Recreation Congress, T. E. Rivers; Field Service to Colored Communities, E. T. Attwell; Recreation for Women and Girls, Ethel Bowers; Play in Institutions, Erna D. Bunke; Educational Publicity, Weaver Pangburn; Recreation Areas in Real Estate Subdivisions, Curtis L. Harrington.

Membership: Individuals, 14,000; affiliated local organizations, 642.

Purpose and Activities: To promote a program whose purpose is that every child in America may have a chance to play, and that all persons, young and old, may have an opportunity to find the best and most satisfactory manner of using leisure time. To this end localities are assisted to obtain or develop more and better facilities or activities of the following kinds: more children's playgrounds, more baseball, athletic fields, tennis courts, and similar facilities, more swimming pools and bathing beaches, more parks (and greater recreational use of park areas); more family play in the home, more music, drama and art activities; more recreation buildings and wider use of school buildings for recreation; more facilities for winter sports; more camps and opportunities for hiking and nature study; more municipal golf courses; better designing and equipment of play areas; better volunteer and paid leadership; better organization and administration of local recreation work; better state and local legislation for recreation; better city planning for play and recreation; year-round recreation programs serving all community groups; trained and competent recreation executives to give full time to planning and administering local recreation work; and greater economy in the expenditure of public moneys for playgrounds and recreation work.

Publications: Playground and Recreation, monthly, $2.00 a year; Recreation Bulletin Service, 25 issues yearly, $2.50 a year; both free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Louisville.

NATIONAL REHABILITATION ASSOCIATION (1925); State Capitol, Madison, Wis.; W. F. Faulkes, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 185.

Activities: Provides a forum in which all phases of vocational rehabilitation of disabled civilians may be discussed; conducts a campaign of education to bring the general public to an adequate understanding of the civilian rehabilitation movement; and promotes comity between agencies interested in the field of civilian rehabilitation.

NATIONAL RESEARCH COUNCIL (1916); B and 21st Sts., Washington, D. C., Vernon Kellogg, Perm. Secy.

Membership: About 80 national scientific and technical societies have a cooperative but not constituent relationship.

Purpose: To encourage and support research in the natural sciences, in cooperation with government agencies, educational institutions, industrial corporations, and individual scientists. Among the committees of the Council most nearly related to social work are those on the following subjects: Child Development, Nursery Schools, Research for the Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Special Problems of the Deafened, Physical Causes of Deafness, Special Census of American Indians, Study of the American Negro, Problems in Industrial Medicine, Research in Infectious Diseases, Research in Problems of Sex, Family Records, Infectious Abortion, and Population.

Publications: Bulletin Series, $5.00 a year; Reprint and Circular Series, $5.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

NATIONAL SAFETY COUNCIL (1912); 20 North Wacker Drive, Chicago; W. H. Cameron, Man'g. Dir.

Divisions: Public Safety, Sidney J. Williams; Industrial Safety, W. D. Keefer; Business, W. L. Wheeler; Education, Idabelle Stevenson; Territorial Councils, Jarvis Price.

Membership: 5,418 individuals, industrial concerns, schools, insurance companies, railroads, and other public and private agencies; and in addition, 60 members representing autonomous community safety organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To prevent human injury and death due to accidents in public, home, and industrial life; and to promote health in industry. The Council's activities include research into technical safety problems and education by the use of publications, general publicity, and national and regional conferences.

Publications: National Safety News, monthly, free to members, but not for sale; Public Safety, monthly, $1.00 a year; Safety Education, monthly, $1.00 a year; Safe Worker, monthly, price depends on quantity; Transactions (of the Annual Congress), $5.00. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Chicago.

NATIONAL SOCIAL WORK COUNCIL (1922); Room 2159, 1440 Broadway, New York; David H. Holbrook, Secy.

Membership: Individuals representing 22 national organizations, and one council of national organizations.

Purpose and Activities: To provide a means through which those responsible for nationally organized social work, either as volunteers or as professional social workers, may more readily exchange information; to provide for regular conference between leaders, and through committees of the council to provide for the investigation and study of common problems. Included in the Council are national agencies and groups of such agencies, either formally or informally organized.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE FRIENDLESS (1900); name changed in 1909 from Kansas Society for the Friendless; 518 Ridge Bldg., Kansas City, Mo., James Parsons, Natl. Supt.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 18.

Purpose: To promote the prevention and cure of crime; reclamation and restoration of the prisoner; and relief of the friendless and distressed.

Publications: First Friend, quarterly, 25 cents; Institutional First Friend, quarterly.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS, INC. (1915); name changed in 1927 from National Committee for the Prevention of Blindness, Inc.; organized in 1915 as a national agency, through consolidation of New York State Committee for the Prevention of Blindness and the American Association for the Conservation of Vision; 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Lewis H. Carris, Man'g Dir.

Departments: Educational, Mrs. Winifred Hathaway; Medical, B. Franklin Royer, M.D.; Social, Eleanor P. Brown; Nursing, Mildred G. Smith; Publications, Isobel Janowich; Industrial, Louis Resnick; Publicity, David Resnick; Statistics, Edith Kerby; Finance, Alice M. Bradford.

Membership: Individuals, 24,150.

Purpose: To ascertain causes of blindness or impaired vision; to advocate measures leading to the elimination of such causes; to bring the knowledge of eye hygiene in popular form to children and adults; and to act as a clearing house and stimulating agent for others engaged directly or indirectly in the prevention of blindness.

Publications: News Letter, 5 issues yearly, free on request; Sight-saving Class Exchange, 5 issues yearly, free on request; Annual Report, free on request; Conference Proceedings, yearly, $1.00 a copy. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in St. Louis.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PROMOTION OF VOCATIONAL EDUCATION. *See* AMERICAN VOCATIONAL ASSOCIATION, INC.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE STUDY OF EDUCATION; 10 Putnam St., Danvers, Mass. Guy M. Whipple, Secy.-Treas.

Purpose: To promote the investigation and discussion of educational questions. The Society holds annual meetings in February at the same time and place as the Department of Superintendence, National Education Association. It has published year books on Health and Education, The City School as a Community Center, Vocational Guidance and Vocational Education for Industries, Preschool and Parent Education, and other similar topics of interest to social workers.

NATIONAL SOCIETY OF PENAL INFORMATION, INC. (1922); Tom Brown House, 114 East 30th St., New York; William B. Cox, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 255; constituent organizations, 5.

Purpose: To study the present methods of dealing with criminals, from their arrest to their final discharge from prison; especially to collect the facts about American penal institutions, and to put the facts so gathered before the public; and to suggest better and more effective methods of dealing with crime.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1930, in New York.

NATIONAL STORY LEAGUE (1903); name changed in 1928 from National Story Tellers' League; Wilson, N. C.; Daphne Carraway, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,500, in 50 local leagues.

Purpose: To encourage story telling and the use of classic and folk lore in education; to foster creative work in the writing and rewriting of stories from historic and classic sources; and to bring together in story telling leagues those whose hearts are afire with this work, that they may impart its spirit to others.

Publications: Yearbook, biennially, 25 cents a copy.

Quadrennial meeting was held in November, 1928, in St. Louis.

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION (1904); 370 Seventh Ave., New York; Dr. Kendall Emerson, Man'g Dir.

Departments: Administration, F. D. Hopkins; Publications and Extension: Philip P. Jacobs, Ph. D.; Health Education, H. E. Kleinschmidt, M.D.; Seal Sale, Basil G. Eaves; Statistics, Jessamine S. Whitney; Child Health Education, Louise Strachan; Supply Service, S. M. Sharpe.

Membership: Individuals, 2,385; constituent organizations, 1,454.

Purpose and Activities: To study tuberculosis in all its forms and relations; to disseminate knowledge concerning the causes, treatment, and prevention of tuberculosis; to stimulate, unify, and standardize the work of the various anti-tuberculosis agencies throughout the country, especially the state and local associations; to cooperate with all other health organizations in the coordination of health activities; and to promote international relations in connection with health activities in the study and control of tuberculosis. Serves as a clearing house for information, advice, and literature dealing with tuberculosis work.

Publications: Journal of Outdoor Life, monthly, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, monthly, free. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Atlantic City.

NATIONAL UNEMPLOYMENT LEAGUE, INC. (1923); 420 Madison Ave., New York; Darwin J. Meserole, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 25 directors and 150 organizers.

Purpose: To advocate or endorse any reform or legislative enactment tending to prevent and eliminate unemployment, the chief aim being to secure employment for all workers in times of business depression through the establishment of public works by the federal, state, and municipal governments; and to bring to public attention, especially to business men, not only the enormous human waste and economic loss of business depressions, but also the fact that the apparent double problem of the stabilization of business and the relief of destitution from unemployment is, in reality, a single problem.

NATIONAL UNIVERSITY EXTENSION ASSOCIATION (1914); Indiana University, Bloomington, Ind.; W. S. Bittner, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 43 official delegates who are representatives of 43 universities and colleges.

Purpose: To establish an official and authorized organization through which colleges and universities engaged in educational extension work may confer for the development and promotion of the best ideals, methods, and standards.

Publications: Proceedings, yearly, $1.00 a copy. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Austin, Tex.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE (1910); 1133 Broadway, New York; Eugene Kinckle Jones, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Industrial Relations, T. Arnold Hill; Research and Investigations, Ira DeA. Reid; Editorial, Elmer A. Carter; Southern Field, Jesse O. Thomas.

Membership: Individuals, about 25,000; constituent organizations, 44.

Purpose: To make investigations among Negroes in cities; to promote social work among Negroes until other agencies extend their programs to include them; to conduct activities through the League machinery until a demonstration is made and the work is assumed by some other agency; to provide for the training of Negro social workers; and to further the industrial advancement of the Negro.

Publications: Opportunity, monthly, $1.50 a year List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Louisville.

NATIONAL VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE ASSOCIATION (1908); 425 West 123d St., New York; Robert Hoppock, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,700; constituent organizations, 29.

Purpose and Activities: To provide individuals with reliable information about different vocations in order that they may choose their own careers more intelligently. Assists social agencies and others who wish to organize vocational guidance work.

Publications: The Vocational Guidance Magazine, 8 issues yearly, $2.00 a year.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in Cleveland.

NATIONAL WOMAN'S RELIEF SOCIETY (1842); 28 Bishop's Bldg., Salt Lake City; Mrs. Julia A. F. Lund, Gen. Secy. and Treas.

Membership: Individuals, 51,025; constituent groups, 101.

Purpose: To carry on welfare work in the fields of health, employment, and education through conventions, field visits, correspondence, personnel, publicity, and other services. *See* MORMON SOCIAL WORK in Part I.

Publications: Relief Society Magazine, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Salt Lake City.

NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE OF AMERICA (1903); Machinists Bldg., 9th St. and Mt. Vernon Place, N. W., Washington, D. C.; Elizabeth Christman, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 17.

Purpose: To promote the following: organization of all workers into trade unions; equal pay for equal work, regardless of sex or race; the 8-hour day and the 44-hour week; an American standard of living; full citizenship for women; the outlawry of war; and closer affiliation of women workers of all countries.

Publications: Life and Labor Bulletin, monthly except August and September, $1.00 a year. List of publications sent on request.

Triennial meeting was held in May, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

NAVY RELIEF SOCIETY (1904); Room 1047, Navy Department, Washington, D. C., Charles F. Hughes, Pres.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 25.

Purpose: To collect funds and provide relief for dependent widows, minor orphan children, and mothers of deceased officers and enlisted men of the regular Navy and Marine Corps of the United States; and to aid in securing employment for

such widows and mothers and in the education of such orphan children.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1930, in Washington, D. C.

NEEDLEWORK GUILD OF AMERICA (1885); 505 Franklin Bldg., 133 South 12th St., Philadelphia; Rosamond K. Bender, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Junior Work, Maria Halsey Stryker; Extension, Marion S. Bettle.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 850,000; constituent organizations, 650 branches.

Purpose: To collect new garments and distribute them to hospitals, homes, and other charities, and to extend the usefulness of the Guild by the organization of branches.

Publications: Annual Report, sent to officers of branches. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Philadelphia.

NEGRO RURAL SCHOOL FUND, ANNA T. JEANES FOUNDATION (1907); Box 418, Charlottesville, Va.; J. H. Dillard, Pres.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of Negro rural schools. Counties are aided to employ supervising teachers to visit small rural schools in order to help and encourage the rural teachers; to introduce simple home industries; to give lessons on sanitation, cleanliness, and so forth; to promote the improvement of schoolhouses and school grounds; and to organize clubs for the betterment of the school and neighborhood.

NEW YORK FOUNDATION (1909); 87 Nassau St., New York; William F. Fuerst, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To apply its income to such altruistic purposes (charitable, benevolent, educational, or otherwise) as the trustees may determine. The organization has not published any studies. Grants have, however, been made to certain national and international social and educational agencies, and studies have been made by a number of them.

NORTH AMERICAN CIVIC LEAGUE FOR IMMIGRANTS (1914); 173 State St., Boston; Perry A. Taplin, Secy. of New York Office, 289 Fourth Ave., New York.

Activities: English, citizenship claims, and bureau of information for immigrants.

NUTRITION CLINICS, INC. (1919); name changed in 1926 from Nutrition Clinics for Delicate Children, Inc.; 270 Commonwealth Ave., Boston; Dr. Wm. R. P. Emerson, Exec.

Departments: Field Work, Institutes, Correspondence, Teaching, Mabel Skilton.

Membership: Individuals, 36.

Purpose: To determine standards of development, on the basis of health diagnosis, for all stages of the period of growth; to provide boards of education, boards of health, child-helping agencies, colleges, universities, and industrial groups with a well-demonstrated and effective program for establishing and maintaining physical fitness; and to teach this program by means of institutes (lectures and demonstrations) given on invitation.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

OFFICE OF EDUCATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR (1867); name formerly Bureau of Education, Department of the Interior; Washington, D. C.; William John Cooper, Com'r.

Purpose and Activities: To collect information about educational conditions in the several states and territories, and to disseminate this information so as to promote the cause of education throughout the country. The Office acts as a clearing house for information and aims to make available to all the states the experiences and achievements of the most progressive and the most highly endowed, and to save costly duplication of experiment.

Publications: School Life, 10 issues yearly, 50 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

OFFICE OF INDIAN AFFAIRS. *See* BUREAU OF INDIAN AFFAIRS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE INTERIOR.

OLIVER (JOHN S.) MEMORIAL RESEARCH FOUNDATION. *See* JOHN S. OLIVER MEMORIAL RESEARCH FOUNDATION.

OPEN FORUM NATIONAL COUNCIL (1914); 1242 Little Bldg., Boston; George W. Coleman, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 39 directors from 20 states and Canada.

Purpose and Activities: To help organizations throughout the country start forums, supply them

with literature, send speakers, help them get organized, and if necessary send a representative to assist them.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Boston.

PARISH CREDIT UNION NATIONAL COMMITTEE (1930); 1312 Massachusetts Ave., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Rev. Edwin V. O'Hara, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, 18.

Purpose and Activities: To give information concerning the history, purpose, method, and results of credit unions, and to make available without cost to pastor or parish groups wishing to establish a credit union, the advice of those competent and experienced in the management of such unions.

Publications: A department in Catholic Rural Life, 9 issues yearly. List of publications will be sent on request, if postage is enclosed.

Annual meeting (a sectional meeting of the National Catholic Rural Life Conference) was held in October, 1929, in Des Moines.

PATHFINDERS OF AMERICA, INC. (1914); 314 Lincoln Bldg., Detroit; J. F. Wright, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Schools, Ira F. King; Prisons, J. F. Wright.

Membership: Individuals, 700 adults, 15,000 students; constituent organizations in the United States, 35, in 6 states.

Purposes: (a) To carry on and promote a moral training program in human engineering in public schools; (b) to carry on and promote educational work among prison inmates, so that while still in prison they may fit themselves for release. The activities are nonreligious.

Publications: Human Relations, issued at irregular intervals, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

PAYNE FUND, INC. (1927); name changed in 1929 from Payne Study and Experiment Fund; Room 371, 1 Madison Ave., New York; H. M. Clymer, Pres.

Purpose and Activities: To develop an increased understanding of youth and the problems of its participation in organized society; and to work with and through youth in building capacity for meeting the opportunities and needs of life. The program of the Fund is recreational in character, addressed to leisure hours of youth, and offered through the media of the periodical, radio, and motion picture.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

PEDIATRIC RESEARCH FOUNDATION OF THE CHILDREN'S HOSPITAL OF CINCINNATI (1928); A. Graeme Mitchell, M.D., Med. Dir.

Purpose: To support laboratory studies, social service studies, child welfare investigation, psychological studies, and the like.

PENNEY (J. C.) FOUNDATION. *See* J. C. Penney Foundation.

PEOPLE'S LOBBY; 39 Bliss Bldg., 35 B St., N. W., Washington, D. C.; Benjamin C. Marsh, Exec. Secy.

Purpose: To represent the common interests of the common people in relation to federal legislation. Its recent interests in matters related to the field of social work include advocacy of a federal relief board for children and unemployment insurance.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

PERSONNEL RESEARCH FEDERATION, INC. (1921); 29 West 39th St., New York; Dr. Walter Van Dyke Bingham, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 200; constituent organizations, 8 research bureaus, 18 educational institutions, 6 governmental agencies, and 6 industrial corporations.

Purpose and Activities: The Personnel Research Federation was organized for the furtherance of research activities pertaining to personnel in industry, commerce, education, and government, wherever such researches are conducted in the spirit and with the methods of science.

Publications: The Personnel Journal, bimonthly, $5.00 a year; The Service Bulletin, bimonthly, $1 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, in New York.

PHELPS-STOKES FUND (1911); 101 Park Ave., New York; Thomas J. Jones, Educat'l Dir.

Purpose: To promote the erection or improvement of tenement house dwellings in New York City and to promote the education of Negroes both in Africa and the United States, North American Indians, and needy and deserving white students, through industrial schools, scholarships, and the erection or endowment of school buildings or chapels.

PIONEER YOUTH OF AMERICA, INC. (1924); 45 Astor Pl., New York; W. Walter Ludwig, Exec. Dir.

Departments: National Experimental Camp, Alexis C. Ferm.

Membership: Individuals, 930; constituent organizations, 2, at Baltimore and Philadelphia.

Purpose and Activities: To build strong, healthy and well-balanced bodies and minds in boys and girls between the ages 9 and 16; to cultivate through creative activity their power to think clearly and freely and act courageously; to acquaint them with the social and economic problems that face the world; and to develop in them a sense of social responsibility and justice. Camp and club activities are employed, based upon the children's interests and capacities. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

PLANNING FOUNDATION OF AMERICA (1929); 130 East 22d St., New York; Flavel Shurtleff, Secy. and Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 55; corporation members, 10; constituent organizations, 10.

Purpose: To broaden and strengthen the public support of city and regional planning by acting as a national clearing house for planning information, and as a service agency to official and unofficial planning agencies.

Publications: Bulletins, news releases, and editorials about twice a month. List of publications will be sent on request.

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA. *See* NATIONAL RECREATION ASSOCIATION.

POLLAK FOUNDATION FOR ECONOMIC RESEARCH, Newton, Mass.; Marian P. Cartland, Secy.

Purpose: To promote studies of the means whereby the economic activities of the world may be so directed, and the products so distributed, as to yield to the people generally the largest possible satisfaction. Studies have been published on cycles of unemployment, industrial accidents, real wages, and other subjects.

PRESIDENT'S COMMITTEE ON RECENT ECONOMIC CHANGES. *See* COMMITTEE ON RECENT ECONOMIC CHANGES OF THE PRESIDENT'S CONFERENCE ON UNEMPLOYMENT.

PRESIDENT'S RESEARCH COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL TRENDS. *See* RESEARCH COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL TRENDS.

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION ASSOCIATION (1918); 10 Jackson Pl., Washington, D. C.; J. Milnor Dorey, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 7,000.

Purpose: To discover evidences of new educational agencies, experimental work, progressive methods, and so forth; to appraise these discoveries, collect data, and serve as a clearing house for information and service; to assist heads of schools in finding progressive teachers; to help teachers find positions; and to help communities in founding progressive schools.

Publications: Progressive Education, monthly, except summer, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in February, 1929, in St. Louis.

PUBLIC HEALTH SERVICE, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF THE TREASURY (1798); Washington, D. C.; H. S. Cumming, M.D., Surgeon General.

Purpose: Protection of the United States from the introduction of disease from without; medical examination and inspection of arriving aliens; prevention of interstate spread of disease and the suppression of epidemics; cooperation with state and local health authorities in public health matters; investigation of diseases; supervision and control of biologic products; public health education; maintenance of marine hospitals and relief stations for beneficiaries prescribed by law; confinement and treatment of persons addicted to the use of habit-forming narcotic drugs who have committed offenses against the United States, and of addicts who voluntarily submit themselves for treatment.

Publications: Public Health Reports, weekly, $1.50. List of publications will be sent on request.

QUEEN'S DAUGHTERS (1889); 11 Aberdeen Pl., St. Louis; Mrs. P. J. Toomey, Cor. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, about 1,000; affiliated associations in 16 states.

Purpose and Activities: To promote spiritual and corporal works of mercy, and philanthropic, educational, and recreational activities, directed by ecclesiastical (Catholic) authority, especially for the benefit of children and young girls.

QUEENS OF AVALON. *See* KNIGHTS OF KING ARTHUR.

RACE BETTERMENT FOUNDATION; Battle Creek, Mich.; Dr. John Harvey Kellogg, Pres.

Purpose: To bring together at suitable times in conferences and conventions leading scientists, educators, and others for the purpose of discussing ways and means of applying science to human living in the promotion of longer life, increased efficiency and well-being, and race improvement; and to conduct and promote race betterment activities of various sorts, especially in educational lines whereby the knowledge of eugenics or race hygiene and personal hygiene may be extended.

Publications: Good Health, monthly, and various tracts and other literature.

RED CROSS. *See* AMERICAN NATIONAL RED CROSS.

REGISTRATION OF SOCIAL STATISTICS (1927); also known as the Joint Committee of the Association of Community Chests and Councils and the Local Community Committee of the University of Chicago; 1126 East 59th St., Chicago; A. W. McMillen, Dir.

Departments: Statistics, Dr. Helen R. Jeter.

Membership: Local participating councils of social agencies, 40.

Purpose: To establish uniform, country-wide systems of statistical recording and reporting, both of financial and of service data, applicable both to public and to private social agencies; to collect monthly reports from these agencies and to publish data that will provide a factual basis for social planning. On July 1, 1930, this work is to be taken over by the Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

Publications: Statistical Summaries, in 24 fields, monthly, $10 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

RESEARCH COMMITTEE ON SOCIAL TRENDS (1930); Department of Commerce, Washington; Edward Eyre Hunt, Exec. Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 7.

Purpose and Activities: To pass in review the significant and important changes in social life in the United States within recent years.

ROBINSON (E. O.) MOUNTAIN FUND. *See* E. O. ROBINSON MOUNTAIN FUND.

ROCKEFELLER FOUNDATION (1913); 61 Broadway, New York; Mrs. Norma S. Thompson, Secy.

Departments: International Health Division, Frederick F. Russell, M.D.; Natural Sciences, Herman A. Spoehr; Medical Sciences (Vacancy); Social Sciences, Edmond E. Day.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the well-being of mankind throughout the world. In furtherance of this purpose the program is at present directed primarily toward the advancement of knowledge. On January 3, 1929, the Foundation was consolidated with the Laura Spelman Rockefeller Memorial. In general it is not an operating or research agency. It assists universities and other agencies in carrying on research of a fundamental character and cooperates with governments in the development of general public health activities.

ROSENWALD (JULIUS) FUND. *See* JULIUS ROSENWALD FUND.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION (1907); 130 East 22d St., New York; John M. Glenn, Gen'l Dir.

Departments: Charity Organization, Joanna C. Colcord; Delinquency and Penology, Hastings H. Hart; Industrial Studies, Mary van Kleeck; Library, Bertha F. Hulseman; Publications, F. Emerson Andrews; Recreation, Lee F. Hanmer; Remedial Loans, Leon Henderson; Social Work Year Book, Fred S. Hall; Statistics, Ralph G. Hurlin; Surveys and Exhibits, Shelby M. Harrison.

Purpose and Activities: The improvement of social and living conditions in the United States. The members of the staff of the Foundation study social conditions and methods of social work, interpret the findings, make available the information by publications, conferences and other means, and seek to stimulate action for social betterment.

Publications: Catalogue of books and pamphlets for sale or distribution will be sent on request.

SAFETY INSTITUTE OF AMERICA. *See* AMERICAN MUSEUM OF SAFETY.

SALVATION ARMY (1865); 120–130 West 14th St., New York; Evangeline Booth, Commander-in-chief.

Membership: Individuals, 4,814 officers in the United States; constituent organizations, 1,735 corps.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the spiritual, moral, and physical reformation of all who need it. Activities include open-air and indoor meetings, men's industrial homes, women's homes for unmarried mothers, hospitals, hotels, women's residences, children's homes, settlements, nurseries, camps, missing friend's bureau, Americanization, eventide homes, family welfare, employment, Christmas dinners, transient relief, and visitation.

Publications: The War Cry, weekly, $5.00 a year. The Counselor, monthly, $1.20 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

SCHEPP (LEOPOLD) FOUNDATION. *See* LEOPOLD SCHEPP FOUNDATION.

SCHOOL GARDEN ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA (1910); Larkin School, Chester, Pa.; David A. Ward, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, about 200.

Purpose: To develop interest in school gardens and promote their establishment as a part of the school program.

Annual meeting was held in July, 1929, in Atlanta.

SCRIPPS FOUNDATION (1922); Miami University, Oxford, Ohio; Warren S. Thompson, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To study the problems arising out of the growth of population in the United States and other nations. Studies have been made relating to eugenics, differentials in natural increase between various groups of people, pressure of population on means of support in certain countries, estimates of future population growth, and so forth.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

SEAMEN'S CHURCH INSTITUTE OF AMERICA (1920); 25 South St., New York; William T. Weston, Gen. Secy.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 17.

Purpose and Activities: To promote institutes for seamen in sea, lake, and river ports of the United States or elsewhere; to promote standards in such work; to affiliate, if possible, existing local agencies for seamen; and to promote the spread of knowledge of their needs by publications. Such institutes promote facilities for lodging, board, and the safe-keeping of money and personal effects; reasonable recreation; and usually, also, opportunities for religious expression.

Publications: Lookout, monthly, $1.00 a year; Crow's Nest, quarterly, 50 cents a year; Mainstay, monthly, free.

SHUT-IN SOCIETY (1877); 129 E. 34th St., New York; Mrs. T. D. Rambaut, Secy.-Treas.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 7,500.

Purpose and Activities: To give cheer and comfort to chronic invalids, cripples, and the blind who are members of the society. Its membership covers all but two states of the country.

Publications: The Open Window, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in January, 1929, in New York.

SLATER (JOHN F.) FUND. *See* JOHN F. SLATER FUND.

SOCIAL RECREATION UNION (1923); Delaware, Ohio; Lynn Rohrbough, Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 300.

Purpose: To create, extend, and maintain the highest possible standards for the social use of free time; to discover and train volunteer leaders for social recreation; to promote and encourage the best available materials through publications and demonstrations; to consult and assist in meeting recreational problems relating to the church; to conduct a loan library, and operate a clearing house for ideas and materials.

Publications: The Recreation Kit, quarterly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Wheeling.

SOCIAL SCIENCE RESEARCH COUNCIL (1923); 230 Park Ave., New York; Edwin B. Wilson, Pres.; Robert S. Lynd, Permanent Secy.

Departments: Research in Industry and Economics, Meredith B. Givens; Fellowships, Walter R. Sharp; Controller, Carolyn E. Allen.

Membership: Representatives of the 7 following organizations: American Anthropological Association; American Economic Association; American Historical Association; American Political Science Association; American Psychological Association; American Sociological Society; and American Statistical Association, and 4 members at large.

Purpose: The promotion, development, and coordination of research in the social sciences and the encouragement of adequate technical training in these fields.

Publications: Annual reports, special reports of committees, research surveys, and reports of special conferences.

SOCIAL WORK PUBLICITY COUNCIL (1921). Name changed in 1929 from Committee on Publicity Methods in Social Work; 130 East 22d St., New York; Mary Swain Routzahn, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 800; constituent organizations, 12.

Purpose and Activities: To serve as an informal clearing house for information and ideas on publicity methods for social, health, and civic agencies. The Council conducts competitions and issues bulletins to members.

Publications: News Bulletin, 8 issues yearly, $2.00 a year to members; $5.00 a year to organization members.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in San Francisco.

SOCIETY FOR THE FRIENDLESS. *See* NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE FRIENDLESS.

SOCIETY OF PROGRESSIVE ORAL ADVOCATES: 16 Columbus Ave., Glen Ridge, N. J.; Mrs. Irene B. Young, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 100.

Purpose and Activities: To investigate recent scientific trends in the education of the deaf; to demonstrate new methods; and to diffuse knowledge relating to oral and aural training. The organization is interested in preventive measures, rehabilitation, education, and all phases of deafness.

Publications: Inquiries as to pamphlets for sale or distribution will be answered by the secretary.

Annual meeting was held in June, 1929, in St. Louis.

SOCIETY OF ST. VINCENT DE PAUL, SUPERIOR COUNCIL OF THE UNITED STATES (founded in 1833 in France, and in 1845 in the United States); 289 Fourth Ave., New York; Edmond J. Butler, Secy.

Membership: There are approximately 1,450 divisions (conferences) of the Society in the United States, organized on parish lines with an active volunteer membership of approximately 18,200, and an honorary membership of approximately 5,000. Groups of three or more conferences in cities or towns are under the supervision of a local council. The Society at large in the United States is under the supervision of the Superior Council.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the spiritual welfare of the Society's members. The principal means to that end are: the giving of personal service and available funds to aid poor, sick, or otherwise helpless fellow-beings; the visitation of poor families in order to assist them by advice and encouragement, and to render financial aid for conserving their homes; and such other works of charity, material or spiritual, as may be helpful to those in need of such aid.

Publications: The Catholic Charities Review (10 issues yearly, $1.00) has a department relating to the Society's work.

SOUTHERN MOUNTAIN WORKERS' CONFERENCE. *See* CONFERENCE OF SOUTHERN MOUNTAIN WORKERS.

SOUTHERN WOMAN'S EDUCATIONAL ALLIANCE (1914); 401–402 Grace American Bldg., Richmond; O. Latham Hatcher, Pres.

Membership: Individuals, 900.

Purpose and Activities: To aid in the orientation of girls and women, by providing information and counsel about education and occupations. The method used is "guidance," based on research. Service is given to colleges, schools, individuals and organizations. Emphasis for the past five years has been placed on aid to rural girls.

Publications: Alliance News Items, mimeographed, issued from time to time. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in November, 1929, at Duke University.

SPELMAN FUND OF NEW YORK (1928); Room 2601, 61 Broadway, New York; Guy Moffett, Secy.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the advancement and diffusion of knowledge concerning child

life, the improvement of inter-racial relations, and cooperation with public agencies. In developing the purpose of the Fund the trustees have decided to confine activities to cooperation with public agencies.

SPORTSMANSHIP BROTHERHOOD, INC. (1925); 342 Madison Ave., New York; Daniel Chase, Exec. Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 250; constituent organizations, 60.

Purpose: To promote the gospel of good sportsmanship throughout the world; to encourage all mankind in every phase and form of endeavor, personal, national, and international, to play the game of life fairly and generously; to stimulate and encourage the spirit of good sportsmanship everywhere, and to cooperate with agencies which have the responsibility for conducting activities in this field.

Publications: Sportsmanship, monthly, 10 issues yearly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in New York.

STOKES (PHELPS) FUND. *See* PHELPS-STOKES FUND.

STURGIS FUND OF THE WINIFRED MASTERSON BURKE RELIEF FOUNDATION (1918); name formerly Sturgis Research Fund; White Plains, N. Y.; Frederic Brush, M.D., Med. Dir.

Purpose: To promote extension and improvement of activities in the field of convalescence.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

SUPERINTENDENT OF PRISONS, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF JUSTICE; Washington, D. C.; Sanford Bates, Supt. of Prisons.

Departments: Fiscal and Administrative, W. T. Hammack; Welfare and Education, A. H. MacCormick; Industries, J. V. Bennett; Supervisor of Probation, Joel R. Moore.

Purpose: To supervise, under the Attorney General, the administration of the federal penal and correctional institutions, to make provisions for the care and custody of federal prisoners committed to jails and other local institutions, and to promote the efficient administration of the probation system and the enforcement of probation laws in all United States courts.

SUPREME COURT, NATURALIZATION BUREAU. *See* BUREAU OF NATURALIZATION, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR.

TAYLOR SOCIETY (1910); 29 West 39th St., New York; Dr. H. S. Person, Man'g Dir.

Membership: Individuals, 701; institutions, 49.

Purpose: To promote research and educational work related to the organization, administration, and management of enterprises, including personnel and social problems.

Publications: Bulletin, bimonthly, and occasional books and pamphlets.

Annual Meeting: First Thursday after the first Monday in December of each year.

TEACHERS' INSURANCE AND ANNUITY ASSOCIATION (1918); 522 Fifth Ave., New York; Clyde Furst, Secy.

Purpose: To provide insurance and annuities at cost for teachers and other persons employed by colleges, by universities, or by institutions engaged primarily in educational or research work.

THOMAS THOMPSON TRUST (1901); 60 State St., Boston; Richards M. Bradley, Dir. Trustee.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for specified benevolent purposes in Brattleboro, Vt., and Rhinebeck, N. Y., and to promote kindred charitable objects. About one-fourth of the Trust's income has been used for direct relief in those towns, but its activities have been largely for promotion of health, for the prevention of disease, and for service in sickness. Studies of sickness and health conditons have been made in Windham County, Vt., in Dutchess County, N. Y. (through the New York State Charities Aid Association), and in Highland Park, Mich., and of the care given to maternity cases in Detroit.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

TROUNSTINE FOUNDATION (1917); 312 West 9th St., Cincinnati; Ellery F. Reed, Exec. Dir.

Purpose: To carry on social research relating particularly to problems presented within the city

of Cincinnati. Publications have been issued at various times setting forth the results of its investigations relating to family welfare work, the county home, the public welfare department, hospitals, illegitimacy, retardation, and so forth. During 1929 an important study relating to the subject of evaluation of case work procedures was under way.

TRUDEAU (EDWARD L.) FOUNDATION FOR RESEARCH AND TEACHING IN TUBERCULOSIS. *See* EDWARD L. TRUDEAU FOUNDATION FOR RESEARCH AND TEACHING IN TUBERCULOSIS.

TWENTIETH CENTURY FUND, INC. (1919); 5 Park Sq., Boston, and 11 West 42d St., New York; Evans Clark, Dir.

Purpose and Activities: To promote the improvement of economic organization and technique for the common good. It has been the general practice of the trustees to contribute chiefly to organizations in the field of industry and business which are dedicated to ends which increase human prosperity and well-being.

UNION OF AMERICAN HEBREW CONGREGATIONS, COMMISSION ON SOCIAL JUSTICE (1927); 1656 Penobscot Bldg., Detroit; Milford Stern, Chmn.

Membership: Individuals, 5.

Purpose: To pronounce and preserve the traditional sympathetic attitude of Judaism toward all who suffer wrong and injustice, and toward progressive efforts in the field of social welfare; and to foster cooperative efforts to solve modern social problems.

UNITED STATES. The federal bureaus, divisions, boards, and so forth, included elsewhere in this list, appear alphabetically under the titles which are here shown in groups according to the departments to which they are attached.

Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture.
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture.
Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture.

Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce.
Bureau of Mines, United States Department of Commerce.
Bureau of Standards, United States Department of Commerce.
Division of Building and Housing, Bureau of Standards, United States Department of Commerce.

Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior.
National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior.
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior.

Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice.

Bureau of Immigration, United States Department of Labor.
Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation, United States Department of Labor.
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor.
Bureau of Naturalization, United States Department of Labor.
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.
Conciliation Service, United States Department of Labor.
Employment Service, United States Department of Labor.
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor.

Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury.

Civil Service Commission, United States.

Federal Board for Vocational Education.

Bureau of Pensions, Veterans' Administration.
Veterans' Bureau, United States, Veterans' Administration.

UNIVERSITY FILM FOUNDATION; 25 Divinity Ave., Cambridge, Mass.; John A. Haeseler, Dir.

Activities: In connection with Harvard University the Foundation operates a center where films and photographs of permanent value are produced, collected, and preserved, and is establishing a library of such material on which both educational and cultural organizations and research workers throughout the world may draw.

VETERANS' ADMINISTRATION (1930); Washington, D. C.; Brig. Gen. Frank T. Hines, Administrator of Veterans' Affairs.

Purpose: An agency organized July 8, 1930, consolidating the United States Veterans' Bureau,

the Bureau of Pensions of the United States Department of the Interior, and the Soldiers' Home of the War Department. See separate listings of the first two of these agencies.

VETERANS' BUREAU, UNITED STATES, VETERANS' ADMINISTRATION (1917); Arlington Bldg., Washington, D. C.; Gen. Frank T. Hines, Dir.

Departments: Med. Dir., Dr. Winthrop Adams; Social Work Section, Irene Grant.

Purpose and Activities: To administer the World War Veterans' Act, the principal provisions of which concern medical treatment, compensation, and insurance for World War veterans. The social work program consists of study and treatment of the social problems of individual beneficiaries in relation to their medical examination and treatment, both in the 47 hospitals and the 49 regional offices (out-patient clinics) of the Bureau. Social work units exist in 26 of the hospitals and 37 of the regional offices, employing 84 psychiatric social workers and 6 workers in training. For visiting nursing service to its beneficiaries 120 graduate nurses are employed.

Publications: Medical Bulletin, monthly, $1.50 a year.

VETERANS OF FOREIGN WARS; Broadway at 34th St., Kansas City, Mo.; Robert B. Handy, Jr., Adj. Gen'l.

VOCATIONAL EDUCATION, UNITED STATES, FEDERAL BOARD FOR. *See* Federal Board for Vocational Education.

VOLTA BUREAU. *See* American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf.

VOLUNTEER PRISON LEAGUE. *See* Volunteers of America.

VOLUNTEERS OF AMERICA (1896); 34 West 28th St., New York; Gen. Ballington Booth, Pres.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 135 stations or mission posts, and 80 homes and industrial branches.

Purpose and Activities: To serve the poor and the unchurched in welfare and evangelistic effort. In addition to mission services, the organization's activities include homes for children, homes and clubs for girls, emergency homes for stranded families, maternity homes for girls, homes for the aged, day nurseries, and industrial homes for men. The winter activities embrace all kinds of relief work, while the summer efforts include 15 health camps for tired mothers and young children. The Volunteer Prison League, a subsidiary organization, cares for prisoners' families and paroled and discharged men.

Publications: Volunteers' Gazette, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

WARDENS' ASSOCIATION, a section of the American Prison Association (See its listing); Edward Denniston, Secy.; Detroit House of Correction for Men and Women, Detroit.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Toronto.

WEDELES (EMIL AND FANNIE) FUND FOR THE STUDY AND INVESTIGATION OF DISEASES OF THE HEART AND CIRCULATION. *See* Emil and Fannie Wedeles Fund for the Study and Investigation of Diseases of the Heart and Circulation.

WHITE HOUSE CONFERENCE ON CHILD HEALTH AND PROTECTION (1929); Interior Bldg., Washington, D. C., H. E. Barnard, Dir.

Sections, Committees, and Subcommittees, with their Chairmen. (Names of research secretaries are in parentheses.)

Section I. Medical Service
Samuel McC. Hamill, M.D.

Committee A. Growth and Development, Kenneth D. Blackfan, M. D.
1. Anatomical Development, Richard E. Scammon, Ph.D.
2. Physiological, Carl John Wiggers, M.D.
3. Variations in Physical Development, Lawrence T. Royster, M.D.
4. Immunology, James D. Trask, Jr., M.D.
5. Nutritional Requirements, Grover F. Powers, M.D.
6. Mental Growth and Development, Lewis M. Terman, Ph.D.
7. Heredity, Charles B. Davenport, Ph.D.
8. Statistical, Edwin B. Wilson, Ph.D.
9. Factors Influencing Growth and Development, Julius H. Hess, M.D.
10. Roentgenological Standards, William Charles White, M.D.
11. Posture, Armin Klein, M.D.

Committee B. Prenatal and Maternal Care, Fred L. Adair, M. D.

1. Obstetric Teaching and Education, Fred L. Adair, M.D.
2. Maternal and Early Infant Care, John O. Polak, M.D.
3. Interested Organizations, Robert D. Mussey, M.D.
4. Factors and Causes of Fetal, Newly-Born, and Maternal Morbidity and Mortality, Hugo Ehrenfest, M.D.
5. Basic Sciences and Maternal and Fetal Problems, Leslie B. Arey, Ph.D.

Committee C. Medical Care for Children, Philip Van Ingen, M.D.

1. Plan and Scope, Philip Van Ingen, M.D.
2. Questionnaire and Statistics, George T. Palmer, D.P.H.
3. Education, Borden S. Veeder, M.D.
4. Private Practice, Isaac A. Abt, M.D.
5. Hospitals and Dispensaries, Clifford G. Grulee, M.D.
6. Convalescent Homes and Care, Adrian V. S. Lambert, M.D.
7. Health Centers, J. H. Mason Knox, Jr., M.D.
8. Health Promotion Agencies, William De Kleine, M.D.
9. Psychology and Psychiatry, Bronson Crothers, M.D.
10. Orthopedics and Posture, Robert B. Osgood, M.D.
11. Dentistry and Oral Hygiene, Percy R. Howe, D.D.S.
12. Nursing, Stella Goostray, R.N.
13. Medical Social Service, Ida M. Cannon, R.N.
14. Nutritional Activities, Lucy H. Gillett.
15. Medical Service for Private Day and Boarding Schools (Joint Subcommittee with Committee C on School Child, Section III), Richard M. Smith, M.D.
16. Prenatal Subjects, J. H. Mason Knox, Jr., M.D. (Joint Subcommittee with Committee B in Section I.)

Section II.
Public Health Service and Administration

Hugh S. Cumming, Surg. Gen'l

Committee A. Public Health Organization, E. L. Bishop, M.D.

1. Federal Health Organization, Haven Emerson, M.D.
2. State Health Organization, John A. Ferrell, M.D.
3. City Health Organization, Henry F. Vaughn, D.P.H.
4. Rural Health Organization, Allen W. Freeman, M.D.
5. Relation of Official and Non-official Agencies in Public Health Organization, C.-E. A. Winslow, D.P.H.
6. Training of Personnel, W. S. Leathers, M.D.
7. Administration of Child Health Work as a Part of the Official Health Program, Anna E. Rude, M.D.
8. Practitioners of Medicine and Dentistry in Relation to Health Programs, David Chester Brown, M.D.

Committee B. Communicable Disease Control, George H. Bigelow, M.D.

Committee C. Milk Production and Control, H. A. Whittaker.

1. Communicable Diseases—Milk Borne, S. J. Crumbine, M.D.
2. Public Health Control, Leslie C. Frank.
3. Nutritional Aspects, E. V. McCollum, Ph.D.
4. Economic Aspects, O. E. Reed.

Section III. Education and Training
F. J. Kelly, Ph.D.

Committee A. The Family and Parent Education, Louise Stanley, Ph.D.

1. The Function of Home Activities in the Education of the Child, Ernest W. Burgess, Ph.D.
2. Home Management and Equipment, Martha Van Rensselaer, D. of Ped.
3. The Family and its Relationships, Ernest R. Groves, Ph.D.
4. State Programs of Parent Education, Ruth Andrus, Ph.D.
5. Pre-parental and Parental Education, Mrs. Sidonie M. Gruenberg.
6. Contributions of Special Organizations, Judith Clark.

Committee B. The Infant and Pre-School Child, John E. Anderson, Ph.D.

Committee C. The School Child, Thomas D. Wood, M.D.

1. Medical Service in Schools, Fred Moore, M.D.
2. Nursing Service in Schools, Elma Rood.
3. Dental Service and Dental Hygiene in Schools, Harris R. C. Wilson, D.D.S.
4. Nutrition Service in Schools, Lydia J. Roberts, Ph.D.
5. The School Plant, Its Construction, Equipment, Maintenance, and Sanitation, N. L. Englehardt, Ph.D.
6. Hygiene of Instruction, Percival M. Symonds, Ph.D.

7. Safety Education in Schools, Albert W. Whitney.
8. Social Hygiene in Schools, Wm. F. Snow, M.D.
9. Physical Education in Schools, J. R. Sharman, Ph.D.
10. Health Problems of the Kindergarten, Julia Wade Abbot.
11. Health Education in Elementary Schools, Anne Whitney.
12. Health Education in Secondary Schools, Edna Bailey, Ph.D.
13. Cooperation of Home with School, Mrs. A. H. Reeve.
14. Administration of School Health Work, A. J. Stoddard.
15. Professional Training of Teachers and Leaders, William C. Bagley, Ph.D.
16. School Health Legislation, James F. Rogers, M.D., D.P.H.
17. School Health Surveys, Edward S. Evenden, Ph.D.
18. Rural Schools, Florence Hale.
19. Indian Schools, Edna Groves.
20. Negro Schools, N. C. Newbold.
21. Parochial Schools, John M. Cooper, Ph.D.
22. Private Schools, Morton Snyder.

COMMITTEE D. VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE AND CHILD LABOR, Anne S. Davis.

1. Vocational Guidance, M. Edith Campbell.
2. Child Labor, E. Natalie Matthews.

COMMITTEE E. RECREATION AND PHYSICAL EDUCATION, Henry Breckinridge.

1. Secondary Schools, F. W. Maroney, M.D.
2. Elementary Schools, Florence Somers.
3. Pre-School Ages, Mrs. A. H. Reeve.
4. Outside of School, George E. Dickie.
5. Leadership Training, James H. McCurdy, M.D.
6. Legislation, Henry Breckinridge, LL.D.

COMMITTEE F. SPECIAL CLASSES, Chas. S. Berry, Ph.D.

1. Blind and Partially Sighted, Winifred Hathaway.
2. Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Mrs. James F. Norris.
3. Crippled, Jane A. Neil.
4. Defective in Speech, Robert West, Ph.D.
5. Mentally Retarded, Meta L. Anderson, Ph.D.
6. Anemic and Tuberculous, Adela J. Smith, M.D.
7. Delinquent, William Healy, M.D.
8. Nervous and Emotionally Unstable, Clinton P. McCord, M.D.
9. Gifted, H. H. Goddard, Ph.D.
10. Teacher Training, Charles M. Elliott, M.A.
11. Organization, Administration, and Supervision, Charles H. Elliott, Ph.D.

COMMITTEE G. YOUTH OUTSIDE OF HOME AND SCHOOL, James E. West.

SECTION IV. THE HANDICAPPED

Prevention; Maintenance; Protection.

C. C. Carstens, Ph.D.
(Emma O. Lundberg)

Note.—The subcommittees for this section, not numbered by the Conference when the Year Book went to press, have been given numbers for the sake of reference.

COMMITTEE A. ORGANIZATIONS FOR THE HANDICAPPED, Mrs. Kate Burr Johnson. (Mary S. Labaree.)

1. State Departments, Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, Ph.D.
2. Form and Equipment, Agnes K. Hanna.
3. State Supervision of Private Institutions and Agencies, James H. Foster.
4. Inter-State Problems, Mrs. A. M. Tunstall.
5. Direct Care, Richard K. Conant.
6. Educational Policies for Promoting Social Work Program, Mrs. S. H. Bing.
7. National Private Organizations, Walter Pettit, Ph.D.
8. Private Agencies and Their Relationship to Public Agencies, Wilfred S. Reynolds.
9. The Federal Government and Child Welfare, William Hodson.
10. Administration of Local Units of Child Care and Protection, H. Ida Curry.

COMMITTEE B. PHYSICALLY AND MENTALLY HANDICAPPED CHILDREN, William J. Ellis, LL.D. (Emil Frankel.)

1. The Deaf and Hard of Hearing, Josephine B. Timberlake.
2. The Blind and Visually Handicapped, Robert B. Irwin.
3. The Crippled, Harry H. Howett.
4. Internal Conditions, LeRoy Wilkes, M.D.
5. Mental Health, Lawson G. Lowrey, M.D.
6. Mental Deficiency, E. R. Johnstone.

COMMITTEE C-1. SOCIALLY HANDICAPPED—DEPENDENCY AND NEGLECT, Homer Folks. (Rose J. McHugh.)

a. Care of Dependent Children in Their Own Homes, Solomon Lowenstein.
b. Methods and Standards of Care for Children Elsewhere Than in Their Own Homes, J. Prentice Murphy.
c. Legal and Social Aspects of the Rescue and Treatment of Neglected Children, Theodore A. Lothrop.

COMMITTEE C-2. DELINQUENCY, Frederick P. Cabot. (Katharine F. Lenroot.)

a. The Child Himself, William Healy, M.D.
b. The Child in Relation to the Family, Almena Dawley.
c. The Child in Relation to the School, Elizabeth Lindley Woods, Ph.D.
d. The Child in Relation to the Church, Louise McGuire.
e. The Child in Relation to Industry, James S. Plant, M.D.
f. The Child in Relation to the Community Agencies and Influences, Jessie F. Binford.
g. The Child in Relation to the State, Calvin Derrick.

Purpose of the Conference: To conduct a survey of all phases of child health and protection in preparation for a general conference of interested organizations and individuals, to be held late in 1930.

WIEBOLDT FOUNDATION (1921); 3166 Lincoln Ave., Chicago; Ferris F. Laune, Exec. Secy.

Activities: The Foundation has used its income largely for the support of existing charitable organizations in Chicago, for aiding in building programs there, and for research. The latter has included study of the motion picture attendance of children in Chicago; a study of case work methods in the treatment of domestic discord in that city and a general study of the fundamental philosophy of philanthropy.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

WINIFRED MASTERSON BURKE RELIEF FOUNDATION. *See* STURGIS FUND.

WOMAN'S CHRISTIAN TEMPERANCE UNION (1874); 1730 Chicago Ave., Evanston, Ill.; Mrs. Ella A. Boole, Pres.

Departments: Organizations, Mrs. Anna Marden DeYo; Young People's Branch, Winona R. Jewell, Secy.; Loyal Temperance Legion, Mrs. Flora Kays Hanson, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 600,000; constituent organizations, 58 state and territorial branches, with 10,000 local unions.

Purpose and Activities: To promote activities for the protection of the home, the abolition of the liquor traffic, and the triumph of Christ's golden rule in custom and in law. Divisions of the organization's work relate to scientific temperance instruction in schools and colleges, Christian citizenship, child welfare, social morality, Americanization, health, legislation, non-alcoholic fruit products, and international relations.

Publications: The Union Signal, weekly, $1.00 a year; The Young Crusader, monthly, 35 cents a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in September, 1929, in Indianapolis.

WOMEN'S BUREAU, UNITED STATES DEPARTMENT OF LABOR (1918); Washington, D. C.; Mary Anderson, Dir.

Departments: Administrative, Anne Larrabee; Investigation, Ethel L. Best, Caroline Manning; Research, vacant; Editorial and Statistical, Elizabeth A. Hyde; Public Information, Mary V. Robinson.

Purpose and Activities: To formulate standards and policies which shall promote the welfare of wage-earning women, improve their working conditions, increase their efficiency, and advance their opportunities for profitable employment. The Bureau advises the Secretary of Labor, makes investigations, analyzes data, publishes and disseminates material in report form concerning problems of women workers.

Publications: Monthly News Letter, free to women wage-earners; Bulletins at irregular intervals. List of publications will be sent on request.

WOMEN'S EDUCATIONAL AND INDUSTRIAL UNION (1877); 264 Boylston St., Boston; Mary H. Tolman, Exec. Secy.

Departments: Research, Lucile Eaves.

Purpose and Activities: To provide for professional research activities in government bureaus or in private agencies engaged in social or industrial investigations; to supply vocational information and guidance for women, in cooperation with the appointment bureaus of the union. Groups of graduate students of Simmons College are directed in cooperative studies dealing with topics of general interest to social welfare agencies. Four research fellowships of $500 each, and one or more supplying tuition and incidental expenses, are awarded annually to women graduates of recognized colleges who are suitably trained in the social sciences.

Publications: Economic Relations of Women, Vols. I–XII; Cooperative Social Research, Nos. I–IV. List of publications will be sent on request.

WOMEN'S FOUNDATION FOR HEALTH. *See* FOUNDATION FOR POSITIVE HEALTH.

WOMEN'S JOINT CONGRESSIONAL COMMITTEE (1920); 2266 Cathedral Ave., Washington, D. C.; Elizabeth Eastman, Chmn.

Membership: The following national organizations: American Association of University Women; American Federation of Teachers; American Home Economics Association; American Nurses Association; Council of Women for Home Missions; Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America; Medical Women's National Association; National Board of Young Women's Christian Associations; National Committee for a Department of Education; National Congress of Parents and Teachers; National Consumers' League; National Council of Jewish Women; National Education Association; National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs; National League of Women Voters; National Women's Trade Union League; Service Star Legion; and Women's Homeopathic Medical Fraternity.

Purpose: To serve as a clearing house of organizations engaged in promoting congressional legislation of special interest to women. Whenever five or more national organizations have endorsed a piece of legislation, a legislative committee is organized to promote the measure, on behalf of the organizations in favor of it. The joint committee itself endorses no legislation and proposes none. Laws of interest to social workers which have been passed, due largely to the efforts of organizations represented in the joint committee, include statutory provision for the maintenance of the Women's Bureau in the United States Department of Labor, the Sheppard-Towner Act relating to maternal and infant hygiene, a compulsory education law for the District of Columbia, and provision for a federal institution for women prisoners.

Publications: Folders explaining aims and purposes will be sent on request.

WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE OF AMERICA. *See* NATIONAL WOMEN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE OF AMERICA.

WOODCRAFT LEAGUE OF AMERICA, INC. (1902); 70 East 45th St., New York.

Departments: Program, Ernest Thompson Seton.

Purpose: To teach the outdoor life for its worth in building character along the "four-fold way"; to educate through recreation and activities that are simple and fundamental—camping, pioneering, home crafts, and Indian lore. *See* SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS in Part I.

Publications: List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in May, 1929, in Greenwich, Conn.

WORKERS EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA (1921); 1440 Broadway, New York; Spencer Miller, Jr., Secy.

Membership: Individuals, 220, constituent organizations, 710.

Purpose: To provide a national clearing house for the workers' education movement in the United States, to stimulate interest in education among the workers of the country, to assist in the establishment of study classes in the different localities, and to unify the separate experiments.

Publications: News Service, fortnightly; Magazine Service, monthly (both free to affiliated organizations); Workers' Education, monthly, $1.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in April, 1929, in Washington, D. C.

WORLD ASSOCIATION FOR ADULT EDUCATION (1919); 16 Russell Sq., London, W. C. 1, England; Dorothy W. Jones, Secy.

Membership: Individuals, approximately 1,200; constituent organizations, 170.

Purpose: To further adult education throughout the world and to develop international cooperation between individuals and organizations or institutions concerned therewith.

Publications: Bulletin, quarterly, free to members. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in August, 1929, in Cambridge, England.

YEOMEN OF KING ARTHUR. *See* KNIGHTS OF KING ARTHUR.

YOUNG MEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, NATIONAL COUNCIL (1883); name until 1924 was the International Committee of Young Men's Christian Associations; 347 Madison Ave., New York; Fred W. Ramsey, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Home, Jay A. Urice; Student, David R. Porter; Personnel, S. M. Keeny; Foreign, E. T. Colton.

Membership: Constituent organizations, 1,464 local associations and 40 state committees.

Purpose and Activities: To minister to the needs of boys and young men, helping them meet the problems and conditions of present-day life and giving them opportunities for greater self-development in body, mind, and spirit. A positive program is offered for the teaching of character-making ideals, by the promotion of health education and physical activity, by providing opportunities for intellectual self-improvement and culture, by acquainting boys and young men with the teachings and ideals of Jesus, and by providing wholesome, social fellowship and economic and vocational guidance. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS in Part I.

Publications: Association Men, monthly, $2.00 a year; The Intercollegian, issued October to June, inclusive, $1.25 a year; Journal of Physical Education, monthly, except July and August, $3.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Annual meeting was held in October, 1929, in Chicago.

YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA, NATIONAL BOARD (1906); 600 Lexington Ave., New York; Anna V. Rice, Gen. Secy.

Departments: Field, Mrs. Emma F. Byers; City, Mary S. Sims; Rural Communities, Henrietta Roelofs; Town, Anna Seaburg; Girl Reserve, Annie Kate Gilbert; Immigration and Foreign Communities, (headquarters of International Institutes) Mrs. Harry M. Bremer; Industrial, Lucy P. Carner; Indian, Edith M. Dabb; Work with Business and Professional Women, Margaret Williamson; Publicity, Mollie E. Sullivan; Finance, Mary Louise Allen; Business, Marcia O. Dunham; Education and Research, Margaret E. Burton; National School for Professional Study, Sarah E. D. Sturges; Foreign, Sarah S. Lyon; National Student Council, Winnifred Wygal; Personnel Bureau, Anne Byrd Kennon.

Membership: City associations, 258; town associations, 139; rural organizations in 2,000 centers; student associations, 541.

Purpose and Activities: To unite the Young Women's Christian Associations of the country; to establish, develop, and unify such associations; to participate in the work of the World's Young Women's Christian Association; and to advance the physical, social, mental, moral, and spiritual interests of young women. Toward the accomplishment of this purpose the National Board acts as a source of education, research, and advice; holds conferences; calls biennial conventions for discussion and adoption of policies; and assists by personnel and grants in similar programs abroad. *See* YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS in Part I.

Publications: The Woman's Press, $2.00 a year. List of publications will be sent on request.

Biennial convention was held in April, 1930, in Detroit.

ZIEGLER (MATILDA) FOUNDATION FOR THE BLIND. *See* MATILDA ZIEGLER FOUNDATION FOR THE BLIND.

NATIONAL AGENCIES, CLASSIFIED

The headings used in this classification are, with a few exceptions, the titles of the articles included in Part I. These headings are themselves classified on pages 19 to 22, under the title TOPICAL ARTICLES, CLASSIFIED.

Asterisks are placed against agencies whose activities relate solely or primarily—and in most cases comprehensively—to the specified topics. The agencies so marked are ordinarily, though by no means always, the best sources of information for correspondents. For many topics no specialized national agencies exist. For fuller explanation *see* INTRODUCTION TO PART II, page 494.

The numerals and letters shown for references to the White House Conference on Child Health and Protection—here abbreviated to "White House Conference"—indicate the sections, committees, or subcommittees established for that agency when this volume went to press, and listed on pages 573 to 576.

ADOPTION

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
*White House Conference (IV-C-1)

ADULT EDUCATION

*American Association for Adult Education
*National Education Association, Committee on Adult Education
*World Association for Adult Education

American Association of Museums
American Federation of Arts
American Library Association, Department of Adult Education

American Council on Education
Association of Urban Universities
Carnegie Corporation of New York
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
National University Extension Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior

Federal Council of Churches, Department of Research and Education
National Catholic Welfare Conference
National Council of Jewish Women

American Association of University Women
General Federation of Women's Clubs
National League of Women Voters

American Alumni Council
Chautauqua Institution
Jewish Chautauqua Society
National Home Study Council
Open Forum National Council
See also WORKERS' EDUCATION, PARENT EDUCATION, IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES, and YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS

ADULT PROBATION

American Prison Association
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole
National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor
National Probation Association
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Delinquency and Penology
Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice

THE AGED

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Federal Council of Churches
National Catholic Welfare Conference
National Civic Federation
National Conference of Jewish Social Service
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America
See also OLD AGE PENSIONS

AMATEUR DRAMATICS

Association of Junior Leagues of America, Play Bureau

Church and Drama League of America
National Recreation Association

AMATEUR OUTDOOR ATHLETICS AND SPORTS

*National Amateur Athletic Federation
*National Amateur Athletic Federation, Women's Division
National Recreation Association
*Sportsmanship Brotherhood
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council

ARTS AND CRAFTS

National Federation of Settlements
National Recreation Association

BATHING PLACES

*American Association for Hygiene and Baths
National Recreation Association

BIRTH CONTROL

*American Birth Control League
*Birth Control Clinical Research Bureau
Brush Foundation
Committee on Maternal Health
*National Committee on Federal Legislation for Birth Control

THE BLIND

American Association of Instructors of the Blind
*American Association of Workers for the Blind
American Braille Press for War and Civilian Blind
*American Foundation for the Blind
American Library Association
American Printing House for the Blind
International Sunshine Society
Matilda Ziegler Foundation for the Blind
National Council of Jewish Women
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
White House Conference (III-F-1 and IV-B-2)

BLINDNESS, PREVENTION OF

*National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
White House Conference (III-F-1 and IV-B-2)
See also agencies mentioned in topical article in Part I

BOYS' CLUBS

*Boys' Club Federation of America
Catholic Boys' Brigade of the United States
International Boys' Work Council
Knights of King Arthur
See also YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS, SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS; and SOCIAL SETTLEMENTS

BUSINESS MEN'S SERVICE CLUBS

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
International Boys' Work Council

CANCER

*American Society for the Control of Cancer
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury

CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK

Apostolate of Suffering
Catholic Boys' Brigade of the United States
Catholic Central Verein of America
Catholic Conference on Industrial Problems
Catholic Daughters of America
Catholic Hospital Association of the United States and Canada
Catholic Medical Mission Board
Catholic Rural Life Conference
Christ Child Society
Daughters of Isabella, National Circle
International Catholic Federation of Nurses
International Federation of Catholic Alumnae
Knights of Columbus
National Catholic Committee on Scouting
*National Catholic Welfare Conference
National Catholic Women's Union
*National Conference of Catholic Charities
*National Council of Catholic Men

*National Council of Catholic Women
Parish Credit Union National Committee
Queen's Daughters
Society of Saint Vincent de Paul, Superior Council of the United States

Character Education

American Society for Thrift
*Character Education Institution
*Institute of Character Research
Institute of Social and Religious Research
*National Child Welfare Association, Knighthood of Youth Department
National Education Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*Pathfinders of America
See also Scouting and Related Organizations and Youth Service Associations

Child Development Research

American Association of University Women
American Home Economics Association
Child Study Association of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
*National Research Council, Committee on Child Development
National Society for the Study of Education
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (I-A)

Child Hygiene

*American Association of School Physicians
*American Child Health Association
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Children's Fund of Michigan
Commonwealth Fund
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Rockefeller Foundation
*White House Conference (I, II, III-C and F-1-6 and 8 and IV-B-1 to 5)

Child Labor

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
International Labor Office
*National Child Labor Committee
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
National Consumers' League
National Education Association
National League of Compulsory Education Officials
*White House Conference (III-D-2 and IV-C-2-e)

Child Protection

American Humane Association
American Social Hygiene Association, Division of Protective Measures
Big Brother and Big Sister Federation
Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Girls' Protective Council
Girls Service League of America
International Association of Chiefs of Police
International Association of Policewomen
National Probation Association
*White House Conference (IV-C-1-c and IV-C-2-f)

Child Welfare

American International Institute for the Protection of Childhood
Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
White House Conference
See also under all topics referred to in the topical article in Part I.

Child Welfare Activities of the Federal Government

Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture
Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior
*Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
Federal Board for Vocational Education

Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice
*White House Conference (IV-A-9)

CHILDREN BORN OUT OF WEDLOCK

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Church Mission of Help, National Council
Girls' Protective Council
*Inter-city Conference on Illegitimacy
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
National Florence Crittenton Mission
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America
*White House Conference (IV-C-1)

CHILDREN'S CODE COMMISSIONS

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

CHILDREN'S GARDENS

National Recreation Association
*School Garden Association of America

CHRONIC DISEASES

International Order of the King's Daughters and Sons
Shut-In Society

CHURCH RECREATION

International Association of Daily Vacation Bible Schools
National Recreation Association
*Social Recreation Union

CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING

*American City Planning Institute
American Civic Association
Federated Societies on Planning and Parks
*National Conference on City Planning
National Municipal League
National Recreation Association
*Planning Foundation of America
Russell Sage Foundation

CIVIC AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS

American Civic Association
*National Association of Civic Secretaries
National Community Center Association
National Municipal League

CIVIL LIBERTIES

*American Civil Liberties Union
American Fund for Public Service

CLINICAL STUDY OF ADULT OFFENDERS

*American Bar Association, Committee on Psychiatric Jurisprudence
American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology
American Medical Association
American Prison Association
*American Psychiatric Association, Committee on Legal Aspects of Psychiatry
First International Congress on Mental Hygiene
International Association of Policewomen
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole
National Committee for Mental Hygiene
National Society of Penal Information
National Probation Association

CLINICS AND OUT-PATIENT DEPARTMENTS

American Hospital Association
American Public Health Association
Committee on the Costs of Medical Care
Julius Rosenwald Fund
White House Conference (I-C-5)

COLONIZATION

Baron de Hirsch Fund
*Jewish Agricultural Society

COMMUNITY CENTERS

International Boys' Work Council
National Association of Jewish Community Center Secretaries
National Community Center Association
National Council of Jewish Women
National Recreation Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreation

National Agencies, Classified

COMMUNITY CHESTS AND COUNCILS

*Association of Community Chests and Councils
National Bureau of Economic Research
National Social Work Council

COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION RESEARCH. *See* RESEARCH IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Child Labor Committee
National Education Association
*National League of Compulsory Education Officials
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (III-D-2)

CONFERENCES OF SOCIAL WORK

Catholic Conference on Industrial Problems
Institute for Social Work Executives
*International Conference of Social Work
*National Association of State Conference Secretaries
National Conference of Catholic Charities
National Conference of Jewish Social Service
*National Conference of Social Work

CONVALESCENT CARE

*Sturgis Fund of the Winifred Masterson Burke Relief Foundation
White House Conference (I-C-6)

COST OF MEDICAL CARE

American Medical Association
*Committee on the Costs of Medical Care
Julius Rosenwald Fund
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury

COUNTY AND CITY HOMES

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
National Civic Federation

CRIME COMMISSIONS

American Bar Association
American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology
American Prison Association
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement
*National Crime Commission
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Delinquency and Penology

CRIPPLED CHILDREN

Association of Junior Leagues of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
General Federation of Women's Clubs
*International Society for Crippled Children
National Association of Teachers of Crippled Children
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (III-F-3 and IV-B-3)

DAY NURSERIES

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
*National Federation of Day Nurseries

THE DEAF

*American Association to Promote the Teaching of Speech to the Deaf
American Medical Association and National Education Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education
American Otological Society, Central Bureau of Research
Conference of Superintendents and Principals of American Schools for the Deaf
Convention of American Instructors of the Deaf
*National Association of the Deaf
National Council of Jewish Women
National Education Association, Lip Reading Department
*National Research Council, Committees on Problems of Auditory Deficiency and on Aural Structure and Function

Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*Society of Progressive Oral Advocates
White House Conference (III-F-2 and IV-B-1)

Delinquent Boys, Institution Care

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Juvenile Delinquency
National Conference of Juvenile Agencies
*National Conference of Superintendents of Juvenile Training Schools and Reformatories
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (IV-C-2-g)

Delinquent Children, Foster Home Care

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

Delinquent Girls, Institution Care

Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Juvenile Delinquency
National Conference of Juvenile Agencies
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (IV-C-2-g)

Dependent and Neglected Children

*Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Duke Endowment, Orphan Section
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America
*White House Conference (IV-C-1)

Desertion and Non-Support

*National Committee on Desertion
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
National Desertion Bureau
Russell Sage Foundation, Charity Organization Department

Detention Homes

Bureau of Social Hygiene
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
International Association of Policewomen
National Probation Association

Diphtheria Prevention

White House Conference (II-B)

Disaster Relief

American National Red Cross

Domestic Relations Courts

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Probation Association

Drug Addiction

*American White Cross
*Committee on Drug Addiction
*National Research Council, Committee on Drug Addiction
*Public Health Service, Narcotics Division, United States Department of the Treasury

Education for Social Work

*Association of Training Schools for Professional Social Work
See topical article in Part I for list of member schools and for agencies which conduct specialized training schools

Education, State Agencies

National Education Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior

Employment Agencies

American Association for Labor Legislation
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association

*Employment Service, United States Department of Labor
*International Association of Public Employment Services
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
Russell Sage Foundation, Departments of Industrial Studies, Surveys and Exhibits, and Statistics
Salvation Army
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

ENDORSEMENT OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

Association of Community Chests and Councils
National Appeals Information Service
National Information Bureau
National Social Work Council

EPILEPSY

*American Psychiatric Association, Section on Convulsive Disorders
Association for Research in Nervous and Mental Disease
National Committee for Mental Hygiene

EUGENICS

*American Eugenics Society
*American Genetic Association
*Brush Foundation
*Genetic Foundation
*Human Betterment Foundation
Race Betterment Foundation

FAMILY BUDGETS

American Home Economics Association
Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture
*National Committee on Home Economics

FAMILY WELFARE SOCIETIES

*Family Welfare Association of America
*Russell Sage Foundation, Charity Organization Department
White House Conference (IV-C-1-a)
See also CATHOLIC SOCIAL WORK, PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK, JEWISH SOCIAL WORK, and MORMON SOCIAL WORK for agencies under religious and racial auspices.

FOLK DANCING

*American Folk Dance Society

FOUNDATIONS IN SOCIAL WORK

See list in topical article in Part I

FRATERNAL ORDERS

American Legion, National Child Welfare Division
Child Welfare League of America
See also topical article in Part I

GIRLS' PROTECTIVE WORK

Church Mission of Help, National Council
*Girls' Protective Council
*Girls Service League of America
International Association of Policewomen
National Council of Jewish Women
*National Florence Crittenton Mission
*White House Conference (IV-C-2-f)

THE HARD OF HEARING

*American Federation of Organizations for the Hard of Hearing
American Medical Association and National Education Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education
American Otological Society, Central Bureau of Research
National Education Association, Lip Reading Department
*National Research Council, Committees on Problems of Auditory Deficiency and on Aural Structure and Function
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
White House Conference (III-F-2 and IV-B-1)

HEALTH CENTERS

American National Red Cross
White House Conference (I-C-7)

HEALTH COUNCILS

*National Committee of Health Council Executives
National Health Council

HEALTH DEMONSTRATIONS

American Public Health Association
Commonwealth Fund
Milbank Memorial Fund

HEALTH EDUCATION IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS

*American Child Health Association, Health Education Department
American Medical Association and National Education Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education
*Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, Health Education Department
National Tuberculosis Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (III-C-9, 11, 12)

HEALTH EDUCATION, POPULAR

American Child Health Association
*American Public Health Association, Section on Public Health Education
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Commonwealth Fund
Foundation for Positive Health
Milbank Memorial Fund
National Child Welfare Association
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Surveys and Exhibits
Social Work Publicity Council
See also YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS

HEART DISEASE

*American Heart Association
Emil and Fannie Wedeles Fund for the Study and Investigation of Diseases of the Heart and Circulation

HIKING

Associated Outdoor Clubs of America
Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture
National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior

HOME RECREATION

Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
General Federation of Women's Clubs
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
National Recreation Association

HOMELESS PERSONS

*Family Welfare Association of America, Committee on the Homeless
International Union of Gospel Missions
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America

HOMEWORK IN INDUSTRY

*Association of Governmental Labor Officials, Committee on Industrial Home Work
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Child Labor Committee
National Consumers' League
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

HOSPITAL CARE

*American College of Surgeons, Hospital Division
*American Hospital Association
American Medical Association, Council on Medical Education and Hospitals
American Protestant Hospital Association
Catholic Hospital Association of the United States and Canada
Children's Hospital Association of America
*Commonwealth Fund, Division of Rural Hospitals
*Duke Endowment, Hospital Section
Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund
Hospital Association, Methodist Episcopal Church, South
*International Hospital Committee
International Order of the King's Daughters and Sons
National Methodist Hospital, Home, and Deaconess Association
Veterans' Bureau, United States, Veterans' Administration
White House Conference (I-C-5)

HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORK

*American Association of Hospital Social Workers

*American Hospital Association, Social Service Section
American National Red Cross
Veterans' Bureau, United States, Veterans' Administration
White House Conference (I-C-13)

HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY

American Association for Labor Legislation
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Consumers' League
National Women's Trade Union League of America
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

HOUSEHOLD EMPLOYMENT

American Association of University Women
American Home Economics Association
Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture
General Federation of Women's Clubs
*National Committee on Employer-Employee Relationships in the Home
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Women's Educational and Industrial Union
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

HOUSING

Better Homes in America
Bureau of Industrial Housing and Transportation, United States Department of Labor
Division of Building and Housing, Bureau of Standards, United States Department of Commerce
Extension Service, Home Demonstration Service, United States Department of Agriculture
*National Housing Association
See also CITY AND REGIONAL PLANNING

HOUSING FOR GIRLS AND WOMEN

Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America
Jewish Welfare Board
National Council of Catholic Women
National Council of Jewish Women
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

IMMIGRANTS AND FOREIGN COMMUNITIES

American Bar Association, Committee on American Citizenship
American Jewish Committee
American Jewish Congress
Bureau of Immigration, United States Department of Labor
Bureau of Naturalization, United States Department of Labor
Carnegie Corporation of New York
Foreign Language Information Service
Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society
Immigrants' Protective League
International Migration Service
Italian Welfare League
Jewish Agricultural Society
League for American Citizenship
National Association of Travelers Aid Societies
National Catholic Welfare Conference, Immigration Bureau
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Subcommittee on Criminal Justice and the Foreign Born
National Council of Jewish Women, Department of Service for the Foreign Born
National Council on Naturalization and Citizenship
North American Civic League for Immigrants
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Salvation Army, Department of Immigration
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, Department of Immigration and Foreign Communities, Headquarters of International Institutes.

INDIANS

American Indian Defense Association
Brookings Institution
*Bureau of Indian Affairs, United States Department of the Interior
*Indian Rights Association
National Council of American Indians
*National Indian Association
White House Conference (III-C-19)
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board, Indian Department

INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS

American Association for Labor Legislation
American Museum of Safety
Association of Governmental Officials in Industry in the United States and Canada
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Bureau of Mines, United States Department of Commerce
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
*Commonwealth Fund, Legal Research Committee
International Association for Social Progress
*International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Association of Legal Aid Organizations
National Child Labor Committee
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
National Consumers' League
National Safety Council
Personnel Research Federation
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

INDUSTRIAL INSURANCE

*Committee on Insurance Problems in Dependent Families

INDUSTRIAL RECREATION

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
National Recreation Association

JEWISH SOCIAL WORK

American Jewish Committee
American Jewish Congress
Baron de Hirsch Fund
*Bureau of Jewish Social Research
Central Conference of American Rabbis, Commission on Social Justice
Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society
Jewish Agricultural Society
Jewish Chautauqua Society
Jewish War Veterans of the United States
Jewish Welfare Board
National Appeals Information Service
National Association of Jewish Community Center Secretaries
*National Conference of Jewish Social Service
National Council of Jewish Women
National Desertion Bureau
Union of American Hebrew Congregations, Commission on Social Justice

JUVENILE COURTS AND PROBATION

Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Girls' Protective Council
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Juvenile Delinquency
National Conference of Juvenile Agencies
*National Probation Association
Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice
*White House Conference (III-F-7 and IV-C-2-g)

KINDERGARTENS

*International Kindergarten Union
National Education Association
*National Kindergarten Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (III-B and C-10)

LABOR LEGISLATION FOR WOMEN. *See* NIGHT WORK IN INDUSTRY, HOURS OF WORK IN INDUSTRY, MINIMUM WAGE, and HOME WORK IN INDUSTRY

LABOR, STATE AGENCIES

American Association for Labor Legislation
*Association of Governmental Officials in Industry in the United States and Canada
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

LEGAL AID

*American Bar Association, Committee on Legal Aid Work
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
*National Association of Legal Aid Organizations

LIBRARIES OF SOCIAL WORK

See libraries named in article in Part I

MARRIAGE LAWS

General Federation of Women's Clubs
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
Russell Sage Foundation, Charity Organization Department

MATERNAL AND INFANT HYGIENE

American Association of Obstetricians, Gynecologists, and Abdominal Surgeons Foundation
American Child Health Association
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Children's Fund of Michigan
Committee on Maternal Health
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Rockefeller Foundation
*White House Conference (I-B and I-C-16)

MEDICAL RESEARCH AND SOCIAL WORK

Alice McDermott Memorial Fund
American College of Surgeons
Commonwealth Fund
John S. Oliver Memorial Research Foundation
Josiah Macy, Jr., Foundation
Leopold Schepp Foundation
Lucius N. Littauer Foundation
Pediatric Research Foundation of the Children's Hospital of Cincinnati
Rockefeller Foundation

Note. For specialized medical research agencies *see* BIRTH CONTROL, CONVALESCENT CARE, THE DEAF, DRUG ADDICTION, EPILEPSY, HEART DISEASE, MENTAL HYGIENE, OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES, SPEECH DISORDERS, TUBERCULOSIS, and VENEREAL DISEASES.

MENTAL HYGIENE (including MENTAL DEFICIENCY and MENTAL DISEASE)

*American Association for the Study of the Feeble-minded
*American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers
*American Foundation for Mental Hygiene
American Psychiatric Association
Association for Research in Nervous and Mental Disease
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Commonwealth Fund
*First International Congress on Mental Hygiene
International Council for the Education of Exceptional Children
James H. Hyslop Foundation
Lifwynn Foundation
*National Committee for Mental Hygiene
*National Congress of Parents and Teachers, Division on Mental Hygiene
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Veterans' Bureau, United States, Veterans' Administration
White House Conference (III-F-5, 8 and 9, and IV-B-5 and 6)

MIDDLE AGE SECURITY

American Association for Labor Legislation
*National Association for Middle Age Employees

National Agencies, Classified

MINIMUM WAGE

American Association for Labor Legislation
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
National Consumers' League
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

MORMON SOCIAL WORK

*National Woman's Relief Society

MOTHERS' AID

*Child Welfare Committee of America
Child Welfare League of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
*Mothers' Aid Group
*White House Conference (IV-C-1-a)

MOTION PICTURES

Amateur Cinema League
*Bureau of Commercial Economics
*Federal Motion Picture Council in America
General Federation of Women's Clubs
*International Educational Cinematographic Institute
National Academy of Visual Instruction
National Catholic Welfare Conference
*National Indorsers of Photoplays
*National Motion Picture League
Payne Fund
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreation
University Film Foundation
See also other organizations named in the topical article in Part I

MOUTH HYGIENE

American Association of School Physicians
American Child Health Association
*American Dental Association, Section on Mouth Hygiene and Preventive Dentistry
American Medical Association
*American Mouth Health Association
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Children's Fund of Michigan
*Dental Educational Council of America
*International Dental Health Foundation for Children
National Education Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Rockefeller Foundation
White House Conference (I-C-11 and III-C-3)

MUSIC

Associated Glee Clubs of America
Music Supervisors National Conference
National Federation of Music Clubs
National Federation of Settlements, Music Division
National High School Orchestra and Band Camp
National Music Week Committee
National Recreation Association

NATURE STUDY

American Association of Museums
American Nature Association
*American Nature Study Society
General Federation of Women's Clubs
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
National Parks Association
National Parks Service, United States Department of the Interior
See also SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS

NEGROES

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
*Commission on Inter-Racial Cooperation
Federal Council of Churches, Commission on Church and Race Relations
General Education Board
John F. Slater Fund
Julius Rosenwald Fund
*National Association for the Advancement of Colored People
National Association of Colored Women
National Health Circle for Colored People

National Research Council, Committee on Study of the American Negro
*National Urban League
Negro Rural School Fund, Anna T. Jeanes Foundation
Phelps-Stokes Fund
Social Science Research Council
White House Conference (III-C-20)
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

Night Work in Industry

International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Child Labor Committee
National Consumers' League
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

Nursery Schools

American Association of University Women
Child Education Foundation
*Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, Preschool Department
International Kindergarten Union
*National Committee on Nursery Schools
National Education Association
National Federation of Day Nurseries
*National Research Council, Committee on Nursery Schools
National Society for the Study of Education
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (III-B)

Nursing Education

American Nurses' Association
*National League of Nursing Education
National Organization for Public Health Nursing
Rockefeller Foundation

Nutrition Work for Children

American Association of School Physicians
American Child Health Association
American Dietetic Association
American Home Economics Association
American National Red Cross
Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
*Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund, Nutrition Department
National Education Association
*Nutrition Clinics, Incorporated
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (I-C-14 and III-C-4)

Occupational Diseases

American Association for Labor Legislation
American Medical Association, Section on Preventive and Industrial Medicine and Public Health
American Museum of Safety
*American Public Health Association, Industrial Hygiene Section
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Bureau of Mines, United States Department of Commerce
*Industrial Health Conservancy Laboratories
International Association of Industrial Accident Boards and Commissions
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
*National Research Council, Committee on Industrial Medicine
National Safety Council
*Public Health Service, Industrial Hygiene Division, United States Department of the Treasury
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

Occupational Therapy

*American Occupational Therapy Association

National Agencies, Classified

Old Age Pensions

American Association for Labor Legislation
*American Association for Old Age Security
National Civic Federation

Organized Labor and Organized Labor, Women

American Association for Labor Legislation
*American Federation of Labor
American Fund for Public Service
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Church League for Industrial Democracy
Conciliation Service, United States Department of Labor
*Conference for Progressive Labor Action
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Civic Federation
*National Women's Trade Union League
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

Pageants

Church and Drama League of America
National Recreation Association

Parent Education

American Association of University Women
American Home Economics Association
Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture
Child Education Foundation
*Child Study Association of America
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
*National Council of Parent Education
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
White House Conference (III-A)

Parent-Teacher Movement

*International Federation of Home and School
*National Congress of Parents and Teachers
National Education Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
White House Conference (III-C-13)

Parks, Playgrounds, and Recreational Centers

American Association of Zoological Parks and Aquariums
American Civic Association
American Institute of Park Executives
American Nature Association
American Park Society
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Federated Societies on Planning and Parks
Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture
National Conference on State Parks
National Park Service, United States Department of the Interior
National Parks Association
National Recreation Association
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreation

Parole for Adults

American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology
American Prison Association
International Association of Policewomen
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole
National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor
National Probation Association
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Delinquency and Penology
Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice

PENAL AND REFORMATORY INSTITUTIONS FOR ADULTS

American Bar Association, Committee on Criminal Law and Criminology
American Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology
American League to Abolish Capital Punishment
American Library Association
*American Prison Association
Bureau of Social Hygiene
Chaplains' Association
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole
National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor
*National Society of Penal Information
*Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Delinquency and Penology
Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice
Wardens' Association

PERSONNEL ADMINISTRATION IN INDUSTRY

American Association for Labor Legislation
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
*Bureau of Personnel Administration
Church League for Industrial Democracy
*Industrial Relations Counselors
International Industrial Relations Association
Labor Bureau
National Civic Federation
Personnel Research Federation
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Taylor Society

PLACEMENT OF THE HANDICAPPED

International Association of Public Employment Services
National Vocational Guidance Association
Women's Educational and Industrial Union

See also THE BLIND, CRIPPLED CHILDREN, THE DEAF, THE HARD OF HEARING, HEART DISEASE, REHABILITATION, SHELTERED WORKSHOPS, and TUBERCULOSIS

PLAY FESTIVALS

National Recreation Association

POLICEWOMEN

Bureau of Public Personnel Administration
Bureau of Social Hygiene
Girls' Protective Council
International Association of Chiefs of Police
*International Association of Policewomen
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Juvenile Delinquency
White House Conference (IV-C-2-f)

PRISON LABOR

American Prison Association
Associates for Government Service
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Bureau of Standards, United States Department of Commerce
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole
*National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor
National Society of Penal Information
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Delinquency and Penology
Superintendent of Prisons, United States Department of Justice

PRISONERS' AID

American Prison Association
*Central Howard Association
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Penal Institutions, Probation, and Parole
National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor
*National Prisoners Aid Association
*National Society for the Friendless
Pathfinders of America, Prison Department
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Delinquency and Penology
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America

National Agencies, Classified

PROGRESSIVE EDUCATION

Child Education Foundation
National Education Association
*Progressive Education Association

PROTESTANT SOCIAL WORK

American Protestant Hospital Association
American Seamen's Friend Society
Bureau of Goodwill Industries
Church League for Industrial Democracy
Church Mission of Help, National Council
Council of Women for Home Missions
*Federal Council of Churches, Commissions on Church and Social Service, Church and Race Relations, and Department of Research and Education
Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America
Home Missions Council
Hospital Association, Methodist Episcopal Church, South
Institute of Social and Religious Research
International Association of Daily Vacation Bible Schools
International Order of the King's Daughters and Sons
International Social Christian Institute
International Union of Gospel Missions
Knights of King Arthur
National Indian Association
National Methodist Hospital, Home, and Deaconess Association
Seamen's Church Institute of America
Woman's Christian Temperance Union
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

PSYCHIATRIC CLINICS FOR CHILDREN

American Psychiatric Association
Behavior Research Fund
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Commonwealth Fund
First International Congress on Mental Hygiene
*Illinois Institute for Juvenile Research
*Institute for Child Guidance
*Judge Baker Foundation
National Committee for Mental Hygiene
National Education Association
National Probation Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (I-C-9 and III-F-8)

PSYCHIATRIC SOCIAL WORK

*American Association of Psychiatric Social Workers
American Psychiatric Association
Commonwealth Fund
National Committee for Mental Hygiene
Veterans' Bureau, United States, Veterans' Administration

PUBLIC ADMINISTRATION

Bureau of Public Personnel Administration
Civil Service Assembly of the United States and Canada
Civil Service Commission, United States
Governmental Research Association
International City Managers' Association
Municipal Administration Service
National Civil Service Reform League
National Institute of Public Administration and Bureau of Municipal Research
National Municipal League

PUBLIC AGENCIES FOR NEEDY FAMILIES

*American Association of Public Welfare Officials
Family Welfare Association of America
Russell Sage Foundation, Charity Organization Department

PUBLIC DANCE HALLS

American Social Hygiene Association
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
International Association of Policewomen

PUBLIC HEALTH

American Association for Hygiene and Baths
American Association of Medical Milk Commissions

American Child Health Association
American Medical Association
American National Red Cross
*American Public Health Association
Association of Women in Public Health
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Children's Fund of Michigan
Commonwealth Fund, Division of Public Health
Conference of State and Provincial Health Authorities of North America
*Foundation for Positive Health
Julius Rosenwald Fund
Milbank Memorial Fund
National Health Circle for Colored People
*National Health Council
National Institute of Public Administration and Bureau of Municipal Research
National Malaria Committee
*National Organization for Public Health Nursing
National Tuberculosis Association
*Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
Rockefeller Foundation
White House Conference (I, II, III-C and F-1 to 6 and 8, and IV-B-1 to 5)
See also agencies listed under the other topics of Group 6, page 20.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATIONS. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH

PUBLIC HEALTH, LOCAL AGENCIES. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH

PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING

American National Red Cross
American Nurses' Association
*American Public Health Association, Public Health Nursing Section
American Social Hygiene Association
Children's Fund of Michigan
Harmon Association for the Advancement of Nursing
International Catholic Federation of Nurses
Julius Rosenwald Fund
National League of Nursing Education
*National Organization for Public Health Nursing
National Society for the Prevention of Blindness
National Tuberculosis Association
White House Conference (I-C-12 and III-C-2)

PUBLIC HEALTH, STATE AGENCIES. *See* PUBLIC HEALTH

PUBLIC WELFARE, LOCAL AGENCIES

*American Association of Public Welfare Officials
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
White House Conference (IV-A-10)

PUBLIC WELFARE, STATE AGENCIES

*American Association of Public Welfare Officials
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Institute of Public Administration and Bureau of Municipal Research
White House Conference (IV-1 to 5, and 8, and IV-C-2-g)

PUBLICITY IN SOCIAL WORK

National Child Welfare Association
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Surveys and Exhibits
*Social Work Publicity Council
For agencies engaged in publicity in special fields see the article on this topic in Part I

RECREATION

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Harmon Foundation
*National Recreation Association
Payne Fund
*Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreation
Social Recreation Union
White House Conference (III-E)
See also YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS, SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS, and agencies listed under the other topics of Group 9 on page 21

REHABILITATION

American Association for Labor Legislation
American Occupational Therapy Association
*American Rehabilitation Committee
American Vocational Association
Federal Board for Vocational Education
*Institute for the Crippled and Disabled
*National Rehabilitation Association

RESEARCH IN COMMUNITY ORGANIZATION

National Community Center Association
Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Recreation

RESIDENCES FOR BOYS AND MEN

Salvation Army
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
See also SEAMEN

RURAL ORGANIZATION FOR RECREATION

Boy Scouts of America
Camp Fire Girls
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
Girl Scouts
National Committee on Boys' and Girls' Club Work
National Recreation Association
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

RURAL SOCIAL WORK

American Country Life Association
American National Red Cross
Catholic Rural Life Conference
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Conference of Southern Mountain Workers
Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture
Federal Council of the Churches of Christ in America
National Catholic Welfare Conference
*National Council of Agencies Engaged in Rural Social Work
Southern Woman's Educational Alliance
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

SAFETY EDUCATION

American Museum of Safety
National Conference on Street and Highway Safety
National Congress of Parents and Teachers
*National Safety Council
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
White House Conference (III-C-7)
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

SCHOOL HYGIENE

*American Association of School Physicians
American Child Health Association
American Medical Association and National Education Association, Joint Committee on Health Problems in Education
*National Education Association, Committee on School Health and Physical Education
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
*White House Conference (III-C and E)

SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS

Boy Rangers of America
Boy Scouts of America
Camp Fire Girls
Girl Guides and Girl Scouts, World Bureau
Girl Scouts
International Boys' Work Council
Junior Achievement
National Catholic Committee on Scouting
Pioneer Youth of America
Woodcraft League of America
See also YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS, and BOYS' CLUBS

SEAMEN

American Merchant Marine Library Association

American National Red Cross
American Seamen's Friend Society
Blue Anchor Society
National Catholic Welfare Conference
Salvation Army
Seamen's Church Institute of America
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council

Sheltered Workshops

American Rehabilitation Committee
Bureau of Goodwill Industries
Federal Board for Vocational Education
National Rehabilitation Association
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America

Small Loans

*National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations
Parish Credit Union National Committee
*Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Remedial Loans
Twentieth Century Fund

Social Case Work

*Milford Conference
*Russell Sage Foundation, Charity Organization Department

Social Hygiene

*American Social Hygiene Association
*Bureau of Social Hygiene
Committee on Research in Syphilis
International Association of Policewomen
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
White House Conference (III-C-8)
Woman's Christian Temperance Union

Social Research

American Association of Social Workers
Brookings Institution
Buffalo Foundation
Bureau of Jewish Social Research
Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce
Carnegie Corporation of New York
Carnegie Institution of Washington
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Children's Foundation
Cleveland Foundation
Commonwealth Fund
Elizabeth McCormick Memorial Fund
Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America, Department of Research and Education
The Inquiry
Institute of Human Relations, Yale University
Institute of Social and Religious Research
International Social Christian Institute
John Simon Guggenheim Memorial Foundation
Nathan Hofheimer Foundation
National Bureau of Economic Research
National Catholic Welfare Conference
National Civic Federation
National Conference of Catholic Charities
National Research Council
Research Committee on Social Trends
Rockefeller Foundation
Russell Sage Foundation
Social Science Research Council
Trounstine Foundation
Twentieth Century Fund
White House Conference
Wieboldt Foundation

Note: The only agencies included are those for general social research or for research in several fields, or agencies for specialized social research not included under other topics, particularly the following: Character Education, Child Development Research, Dependent and Neglected Children, Home Economics, Hospital Care, Household Employment, Medical Research and Social Work, Mental Hygiene, Motion Pictures, Parent Education, Penal and Reformatory Institutions for Adults, Psychiatric Clinics for Children, Public Health, Rehabilitation, Research in Community Organization, Social Case Work, Social Research in Industry, Southern Mountaineers, Statistics of Social Work, and Vocational Guidance

Social Research in Industry

American Association for Labor Legislation
American Federation of Labor

Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Bureau of Personnel Administration
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association
Committee on Recent Economic Changes of the President's Conference on Unemployment
Commonwealth Fund, Legal Research Committee
Federal Council of Churches, Department of Research and Education
Industrial Relations Counselors
International Association for Social Progress
International Industrial Relations Association
*International Labor Office, Washington Branch
*Labor Bureau
National Bureau of Economic Research
National Catholic Welfare Conference
National Child Labor Committee
National Civic Federation
National Consumers' League
Personnel Research Federation
Pollak Foundation for Economic Research
*Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Industrial Studies
Twentieth Century Fund
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Women's Educational and Industrial Union

Social Service Exchanges

*Association of Community Chests and Councils, Committee on Social Service Exchanges

Social Settlements

*National Federation of Settlements

Social Surveys

*Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Surveys and Exhibits

Social Work as a Profession

*American Association of Social Workers
Joint Vocational Service

Societies for Friendly Services

Apostolate of Suffering
Catholic Daughters of America
Christ Child Society
International Order of the King's Daughters and Sons
National Council of Catholic Women
National Plant, Flower and Fruit Guild
Needlework Guild of America
Shut-In Society
Woman's Christian Temperance Union

Southern Mountaineers

*Conference of Southern Mountain Workers
*E. O. Robinson Mountain Fund
Southern Woman's Educational Alliance

Speech Disorders

*American Society for the Study of Disorders of Speech
*White House Conference (III-F-4)

Statistics of Social Work

American Statistical Association, Committees on Institutional Statistics and on Social Statistics
Bureau of Jewish Social Research
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Institute of Public Administration
*Registration of Social Statistics
*Russell Sage Foundation, Department of Statistics
Social Science Research Council, Committee on Social Statistics

Story Telling

American Library Association
International Kindergarten Union
National Education Association
National Kindergarten Association
*National Story League
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
National Recreation Association

Summer Camps and Day Outings

Extension Service, United States Department of Agriculture

Forest Service, United States Department of Agriculture
National Council of Jewish Women
National Recreation Association
Salvation Army
Volunteers of America
See also YOUTH SERVICE ASSOCIATIONS and SCOUTING AND RELATED ORGANIZATIONS

THE THEATRE

Church and Drama League of America

TRANSPORTATION OF CLIENTS

American Association of Public Welfare Officials
*Committee on Transportation of Allied National Agencies
*National Conference of Jewish Social Service, Committee on Transportation

TRAVELERS AID

*National Association of Travelers Aid Societies

TUBERCULOSIS

Alice McDermott Memorial Fund
Colorado Foundation for Research in Tuberculosis
Edward L. Trudeau Foundation for Research and Teaching in Tuberculosis
*National Conference of Tuberculosis Secretaries
*National Tuberculosis Association
White House Conference (II-B and III-F-6)

UNEMPLOYMENT

American Association for Labor Legislation
Association of Governmental Officials in Industry of the United States and Canada
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
Committee on Governmental Labor Statistics of the American Statistical Association
Committee on Recent Economic Changes of the President's Conference on Unemployment
Family Welfare Association of America
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Bureau of Economic Research
National Commission on Law Observance and Enforcement, Committee on Causes of Crime
*National Unemployment League
Russell Sage Foundation, Departments of Industrial Studies and of Statistics
Women's Bureau, United States Department of Labor

VENEREAL DISEASES

American Social Hygiene Association
*Committee on Research in Syphilis
Julius Rosenwald Fund
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury
White House Conference (II-B)

VETERANS

American Legion
American National Red Cross
Army Relief Society
*Bureau of Pensions, Veterans' Administration
Disabled American Veterans of the World War
Disabled Emergency Officers of the World War
Fleet Reserve Association
Jewish War Veterans of the United States
Jewish Welfare Board
National Home for Disabled Volunteer Soldiers
Navy Relief Society
*Veterans' Bureau, United States, Veterans' Administration
Veterans of Foreign Wars

VISITING HOUSEKEEPERS AND HOME ECONOMISTS

American Dietetic Association
American Home Economics Association
Bureau of Home Economics, United States Department of Agriculture
*National Committee on Home Economics

VISITING TEACHERS

*American Association of Visiting Teachers
Commonwealth Fund

National Agencies, Classified

*National Committee on Visiting Teachers
National Education Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
*White House Conference (IV-C-2-c)

Vital and Health Statistics

American Bar Association, Committee on Vital Statistics
American Medical Association
American Public Health Association and its Committee for Completing the Registration Area before 1930
American Statistical Association
Bureau of the Census, United States Department of Commerce
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
National Conference of Commissioners on Uniform State Laws
Public Health Service, United States Department of the Treasury

Vocational Education

*American Vocational Association
*Federal Board for Vocational Education
*National Education Association, Committee on Vocational Education
National Rehabilitation Association
See also Youth Service Associations

Vocational Guidance

*American Council on Education, Committee on Personnel Methods
American Vocational Association
Children's Bureau, United States Department of Labor
Employment Service, Juvenile Division, United States Department of Labor
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
*J. C. Penney Foundation
National Council of Jewish Women
National Education Association
*National Vocational Guidance Association
Office of Education, United States Department of the Interior
Personnel Research Federation
Southern Woman's Educational Alliance
*White House Conference (III-D-1)
See also Youth Service Associations and Scouting and Related Organizations

Women's Organizations and Social Work

American Association of University Women
Association of Junior Leagues of America
General Federation of Women's Clubs
National Council of Catholic Women
National Council of Jewish Women
National Council of Women of the United States
National Federation of Business and Professional Women's Clubs
National League of Women Voters
Woman's Christian Temperance Union
Women's Joint Congressional Committee

Workers' Education

American Federation of Labor
Bureau of Labor Statistics, United States Department of Labor
International Industrial Relations Association
International Labor Office, Washington Branch
National Women's Trade Union League of America
*Workers Education Bureau of America

Youth Service Associations

Girls' Friendly Society of the United States of America
Jewish Welfare Board
Knights of Columbus
National Association of Jewish Community Center Secretaries
Young Men's Christian Associations, National Council
Young Women's Christian Associations, National Board

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